DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 040 365 AC 008 189

AUTHOR	Pine, Gerald J.; Horne, Peter J.
TITLE	Operation Mainstream; A Report on Problem Solving and the Helping Relationship.
INSTITUTION	New England Center for Continuing Education, Durham, N.H.
PUB DATE	68
NOTE	96p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$4.90
DESCRIPTORS	Administrative Organization, *Adult Counseling, Adult Learning, *Counselors, *Depressed Areas (Geographic), Participant Characteristics, Personnel Selection, Problem Solving, Program Evaluation, Rural Areas, *Subprofessionals, *Training
IDENTIFIERS	New England, *Operation Mainstream

ABSTRACT

This report describes counselor aide training activities in the Operation Mainstream project conducted in Vermont, New Hampshire, and Northern Maine. It evaluates the effectiveness of the training program and identifies some significant and effective educational principles, concepts, and techniques. Its overall objective is to suggest a design for educational activities that will impart problem solving and helping skills to nonprofessionals wishing to improve their ability to help others solve their own problems. Content on rural poverty in Northern New England, interaction between counselors and clients, and related matters includes (and is derived from) data consisting largely of opinions and self-reports by community aides, supervisors, and trainers. The document includes 10 tables and figures, a questionnaire, guidelines for data collection, examples of training schedules, reporting forms, and procedures for selecting aides. (Author/LY)

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FORM 0801

ED0 40365

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OPERATION MAINSTREAM

A Report on
PROBLEM SOLVING
and the
HELPING RELATIONSHIP

AC008189

The New England Center for Continuing Education
Durham, N. H.

ED0 40365

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FOREWORD

The information contained in this report could not have been obtained had it not been for the wholehearted cooperation on the part of all the persons associated with carrying out the project. The willingness of many to share with us a frank, honest look at what has transpired during the past year has provided an excellent foundation on which to build future programs for teaching the helping skills to a wide variety of persons.

We especially would like to thank Mr. Austin E. Bennett who, as Coordinator for the University of Maine activities in the New England Center for Continuing Education, conceived this project and gave his full support to its documentation and evaluation.

Gerald J. Pine
Peter J. Horne

Funding for Operation Mainstream has been provided by the Bureau of Work Programs, U. S. Department of Labor under authorization of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.

I INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Report

The following report describes the counseling training activities undertaken in the Operation Mainstream project conducted in northern Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. It evaluates the effectiveness of the counseling training program and, from the evaluation, identifies some significant and effective educational principles, concepts, and techniques. The overall objective of the report is to suggest a design for educational activities that will effectively teach problem-solving and helping skills ("counseling" skills) to nonprofessional people who may desire to increase their effectiveness in helping others solve their own problems.

Content for this report includes, and is derived from, descriptive data consisting primarily of opinions and self reports of community aides, supervisors, and trainers. It should be noted that the data deal mostly with perceptions and recalled behavior and, to some slight degree, with directly observed behavior. It is assumed that the reader of the report in considering its findings and recommendations will be sensitive to the validity and limitations of a descriptive study of this type.

Sources of Data

The evaluations and self-reported behaviors constituting much of the data of this report were obtained from written narrations which in the initial stages of the Operation Mainstream project were unstructured in format. Community aides maintained a daily log of their activities, experiences, and impressions. Some of the aides wrote very detailed and comprehensive narrations of their activities, others wrote sketchy descriptions. In January 1968 a more structured form of writing narrations was developed and put into use in order to standardize in a reasonable way the procedure for recording information. The form was designed so that it could be used not only by community aides but also by supervisors, trainers, and other Operation Mainstream personnel, thus providing an element of consistency in the collection of data. (See Appendix A, E) Other data were drawn from the employment applications of aides, minutes of program development meetings, the Operation Mainstream proposal, supervisory evaluations of aides, outlines of training sessions and workshops, trainers' evaluations of workshops, and from direct observation of Operation Mainstream activities.

Organization of the Report

The data gathered have been analyzed and translated into an evaluative account of the Operation Mainstream counseling training project. The report is organized to treat in sequence the following topics: rationale and development of Operation Mainstream; the goals and objectives of the counseling training project; its organizational and administrative structure; profiles of personnel; program content and activities; program evaluation; and implications and applications. It is hoped that the format of the report enables the reader to gain an historical and a developmental perspective of the Operation Mainstream project and provides a useful framework for considering two central questions:

1. To what degree has the Operation Mainstream counseling training project been successful in achieving its stated objectives?

2. What can be learned from the Operation Mainstream counseling training project that can be applied in helping nonprofessional people to develop skills in helping others to solve their own problems?

II OPERATION MAINSTREAM - RATIONALE AND DEVELOPMENT

The University of Maine and the New England Center

To understand the nature and purpose of the Operation Mainstream counseling training project it is necessary to begin with a delineation of the social, educational, and organizational context within which the project was conceived and developed. In Fiscal Year 1967 the University of Maine initiated its activity in the New England Center for Continuing Education with a basic organizational structure and a statement of broad objectives. The organization provided for a University of Maine coordinator in the New England Center responsible to the Director of the Maine Extension Service. The coordinator's responsibility was to develop programs that would work toward meeting the following objective:

> To provide leadership in continuing education for orderly development of human, natural, and economic resources in the New England region.

At the beginning of the year several tasks emerged as requiring attention:

1. Organizing a structure throughout the six New England state universities to provide for faculty participation and support in planning and implementing regional programs of continuing education for resource development.

2. Organizing an advisory group in the University of Maine to participate in planning and supporting activities of the University of Maine in the New England Center.
3. Developing a relationship with the New England Center that would integrate the University of Maine program with the overall New England Center program.
4. Narrowing the objectives to a working action plan.
5. Evaluating opportunities in the six New England states and bordering Canadian provinces for resource development education that would contribute to the solution of regional problems.
6. Developing projects that would take advantage of the opportunities for resource development education and find funds to implement such projects.

Shortly after the coordinator was appointed he arranged interviews with presidents of the state universities in New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. He explained the general nature and approach of the University of Maine program and requested that each president name a contact person with whom the coordinator could communicate in that university. It was requested that the contact person be someone who was most concerned with education for resource development and for off-campus education within the university. Each of the presidents named such a person.

Within the University of Maine the coordinator invited the administrative heads of off-campus educational units to serve on an advisory committee. A seven-man committee was organized including the heads of the Cooperative Extension Service, Continuing Education Division, Bureau of Public Administration, State Technical Services, Title I Higher Education Act, Bureau of Labor Education, and the Assistant Dean of the College of Education.

The coordinator met individually with each of the members of the

University of Maine Advisory Committee and with the five state university contact persons, held several meetings of the U.M. Advisory Committee, and held a 3-day conference of all of the advisory group.

One of the most difficult problems in developing the UM/NEC program was to translate broad policy objectives into specific directions and program emphases. It seems that an almost infinite list of opportunities for regional resource development exists, and potential applications of educational activities to these opportunities make an even longer list. Careful selection of activities that could make important contributions toward the objectives of the University of Maine in the New England Center was important to the long-range effectiveness of the program.

The coordinator began collecting data about resource development problems and interests by personal interviews with many people who seemed likely to be interested in education related to resource development through the region. On the initial circuit most of the people interviewed were at the Universities of Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire and Maine along with such people as those in the Maine Governor's Office of Economic Opportunity and Department of Economic Development. In New Brunswick and Nova Scotia interviews were conducted with officials in the University of New Brunswick, Office of the Economic Advisor, Atlantic Provinces Economic Council, Dalhousie University, Institute for Public Affairs, Voluntary Economic Planning, and Ministry of Agriculture. During the year discussions of the UM/NEC interest in continuing education for resource development were held with a variety of people in many government and educational organizations.

Interviews were designed to find out the interests and special concerns of people in resource development primarily, rather than to express ideas to them. Confusion arose during the early months from the wide variety of special interests and programs going under the name of "resource development". Eventually it became clear that the common thread among all resource development activities is the organized action of groups of people to bring about some kind of economic or social change. It became increasingly evident that the major mutual problem of all resource development groups is how to improve the process by which a group, or groups, of people manage their resources.

As promising alternative patterns of action for UM/NEC began to emerge, a program development conference was held with two people from each of the other state universities and the University of Maine Advisory Committee. With help from an outside perspective supplied by Sydney Howe, Senior Associate, The Conservation Foundation, Washington, D. C., the group arrived at a general understanding and agreement as to specific immediate directions toward which UM/NEC programs should aim. These are summarized in some detail in the brochure, The University of Maine in the New England Center for Continuing Education. The operational definition of continuing education for resource development found there was accepted and understood by the conference participants. General agreement was that initial effort should concentrate on three activities:

1. Organizing resource development training.
2. Developing a program of education for adaptability to change.

3. Beginning to assemble information about what is going on in resource development in the region.

The Operation Mainstream counseling training project grew out of the second concern for developing a program of education for flexibility to change.

Rural Poverty in Northern New England

Starting with the question of defining the level of unemployment and underemployment in rural areas, it was soon discovered that the problem of rural poverty, so widespread in many parts of Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont, is ill defined, if not undefinable.

However, one did not need to talk with many community development leaders or travel far in the rural areas of Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont before he became acutely aware of the deprivation experienced by many families. Fundamental data were not available but several sources of statistical information confirmed the seriousness of rural poverty. Information on employment, wage rates, income, population characteristics and distribution, educational levels, values and attitudes gave testimony to its dimensions. Several observations could be made to estimate the scope and nature of the problem:

1. The rate of unemployment, underemployment, and poverty was highest in rural areas.

   Annual average unemployment in Washington County, Maine, in 1965 was double that of the Biddeford-Sanford area of York County. In 1959 the median income of farm families was under $3,000 in two Vermont counties and in one Maine county.

   The highest proportion of families with less than $3,000 income was in Washington, Waldo, and Aroostook counties in Maine, and in Carroll, Grafton, and Sullivan counties in New Hampshire - all rural counties.

   Half of Maine's population was classified as rural.

Twenty-seven per cent of rural non-farm families and 41 per cent of rural farm families had incomes under $3,000 compared to 14 per cent of urban families.

2. Seasonal unemployment was serious in rural counties. As an extreme example, the unemployment rate in Washington County, Maine, varied in 1965 from 18.3 per cent in January to 5.4 per cent in September. The index of unemployment (average monthly employment for the 5 years 1959-1963 = 100) in New Hampshire's northern region (rural) fluctuated from 141.3 in April to 67.9 in August.

3. While unemployment statistics gave some indication of the number of people who needed jobs, no satisfactory measurements of underemployment were available. Underemployment is a relative term; in the sense of failing to perform to the full potential of individual human capability, we are all underemployed. Many - probably most - low income people are intellectually and physically capable of higher quality employment.

4. Rural areas with high proportions of unemployment and underemployment had some common characteristics:

    a. Declining opportunities for agricultural employment.

    b. Slow industrial growth.

    c. Out-migration of younger, more ambitious individuals.

5. Some generalizations could be drawn about the low income people in these rural areas besides the obvious ones such as income level and employment status:

    a. They had low educational attainment.

    b. They had low educational aspirations.

    c. They were conservative and slow to change.

    d. They were suspicious of outsiders.

6. The rural disadvantaged lacked:

    a. Marketable skills.

    b. Acceptance of change.

    c. Employment opportunities.

7. To have a significant impact on rural manpower development, a program had to provide opportunities to learn attitudes, knowledge and skills. Because there was such a wide variety of personal circumstances shared by the rural disadvantaged, a program dealing with their problems had to be flexible enough to accept an individual where he was and, from this point, help him develop attitudes, knowledge and skills that were congruent with his capabilities.

   While documentation was perhaps limited, the evidence was strong enough to support the conclusion that a large proportion of people in many rural sections of Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont were deprived of an adequate standard of living by unemployment and underemployment. The situation had deteriorated for some time and was not likely to improve without positive action.

Availability of skill training and placement service in themselves had not been adequate to raise employment levels. There needed to be a personal examination of attitudes and an awareness of alternatives before we could constructively utilize these programs. Many low income families in rural areas needed to be given the opportunity to gain insight into their problems and personal circumstances and then make their own decisions as to what they needed to do.

The complexity of the problem demanded a comprehensive approach that would bring a variety of resources to bear in a coordinated manner such as had not been attempted before.

Education for Flexibility

Out of a review of the situation, three requirements for improved economic situations in rural areas became apparent: (1) employment opportunities, (2) employable skills, and (3) ability to adapt to changes required to match employable skills with employment opportunities. While government and other programs have been, and are, aimed at improving employment opportunities and increasing skills, little effort can be identified as attacking the problem of inflexibility to change.

A concept was developed that promised to define the problem of rural poverty more clearly while at the same time offering a possible help to that problem. The approach was called "Education for Flexibility" and was based on a counseling approach to help people become more aware of their own situation, define their problems, and select alternatives for change. Originally plans were proposed for establishing 15 volunteer counselors in communities in northern Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont to help rural poor people define their problems with the intent of arriving at a definition of rural poverty in terms of the rural poor. It was also expected that the availability of counseling in itself would help to overcome some of these problems.

As some U. S. Department of Labor officials learned of the concept, they became convinced that it held promise for effectively attacking rural poverty. Suggesting the possibility that a more comprehensive project could be financed through the Scheuer Amendment to the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Boston and New York offices of the Bureau of Work Programs, U. S. Department of Labor, encouraged preparation of a proposal by which the project could be implemented. The UM/NEC coordinator prepared such a proposal and eventually revised it into the present form, a three-part project sponsored by community action agencies serving 11 counties in Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont.

Operation Mainstream Counseling Training Project

The Bureau of Work Programs released a total of approximately

$450,000 to the three community action agencies for implementing the Operation Mainstream project from June 1967 to June 1968. The funded version of Operation Mainstream called for employing 120 community aides from the ranks of rural poor in the three states to be supervised by six supervisors employed by the community action agencies. The community aides were to be trained in counseling and problem-solving skills with the expectation that this would not only contribute to their own self-development but also help them to help others solve their own problems. The University of Maine in the New England Center contracted with the three community action agencies to provide counseling training to Operation Mainstream supervisors and community aides for a total of $49,600.

To accomplish this training task, the University of Maine coordinator engaged a staff of part-time resource development consultants qualified in the area of counseling psychology. The responsibility of the training staff was to develop a program to assist supervisors and community aides to develop basic counseling skills; i.e., helping skills and competency in personal problem-solving. It was expected that community aides would, in turn, assist other people in their local communities to develop problem-solving skills.

III OBJECTIVES OF OPERATION MAINSTREAM COUNSELING TRAINING PROJECT

The content of the training program was designed to help supervisors and community aides to increase knowledge, develop skills, and change attitudes in the following specific areas:

1. Self-knowledge; freeing the self to understand and use one's own abilities; undertaking a helping relationship with others.
2. Communication; expressing and receiving ideas and feelings.
3. Problem-solving; using facts and knowledge systematically in decision-making.
4. Interviewing; establishing rapport and climate in face-to-face contact with others to help them face problems, collect data, make decisions.
5. Personal limitations; what can and cannot be done in the community aide role.
6. Referral; recognition of problems that can be handled by others; behavior in cases needing referral.
7. Facilities, agencies and programs available in the community.
8. Ways of relating to community resources and persons.

The approach to be followed in developing the training program was for the training staff to work primarily with supervisors in supporting their abilities to train community aides. The training staff assumed responsibility to:

1. Plan the general training program framework.
2. Confer with the agency director and project director on the selection of supervisors and of aides.
3. Confer with supervisors individually.
4. Conduct a workshop with supervisors on supervisor role and relationships.
5. Conduct a workshop with supervisors on aide recruiting, interviewing and screening procedures.
6. Confer weekly with supervisors.
7. Meet approximately monthly with each supervisor and his aides.

8. Work with supervisors in developing a schedule of training activities for aides.

9. Provide audio-visual and self-instructional materials for support of training.

10. Develop a system for measuring and recording the progress of trainees in personal development and in job proficiency.

IV ORGANIZATIONAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

Figure 1 presents the initial organizational and administrative configuration within which the Operation Mainstream Counseling Training Project operated. In each state the administering agency for the project was a Community Action Program office out of which the O.M. Project Director and the O.M. Supervisor worked. Figure 2 presents the operational and organizational configuration at the time of this report.

Each O.M. Project Director had responsibility for the overall administration and supervision of the total project in his state including personnel management, fiscal and budget management and coordination of the project with related activities. State O.M. Project Directors were also responsible for the design and development of training activities for aides in cooperation with the training staff and consultants from the University of Maine at the New England Center for Continuing Education. Direct supervision was provided by the Project Directors for the community aides in their geographical areas.

O.M. Project Supervisors worked with Project Directors in recruitment and enrollment of community aides. They maintained pertinent records; directly supervised a number of aides in their geographical areas; and worked with Project Directors and training consultants in designing training programs appropriate to the needs of the aides. Additional information regarding the counseling training project as it was organized and administered in each state is to be found in Appendix B.

V COMMUNITY AIDES: A PROFILE

Criteria for Selecting Aides

It was obvious that in the initial stage of the project one of the most important tasks for trainers and supervisors would be the selection of people who would function effectively as community aides. Out of several discussions and conferences involving O.M. trainers and supervisors emerged selection criteria which reflected:

1. Guidelines for employment established by the Office of Economic Opportunity.
2. The interests and desires of the O.M. supervisors in each state.
3. The needs of the Community Action Program agencies in each state.

All agencies in the O.M. project were required to use OEO guidelines which indicated that aides were to be recruited from persons who met the following criteria:

1. They were at least twenty-two years of age.
2. They were indigenous and lived in a rural area.
3. They had a low income ($3,200 for a family of 4 - $400 for each additional member in larger sized families).
4. They were chronic seasonal workers, or underemployed, or unemployed.

Figure 1

Initial Operational Structure
July 1967

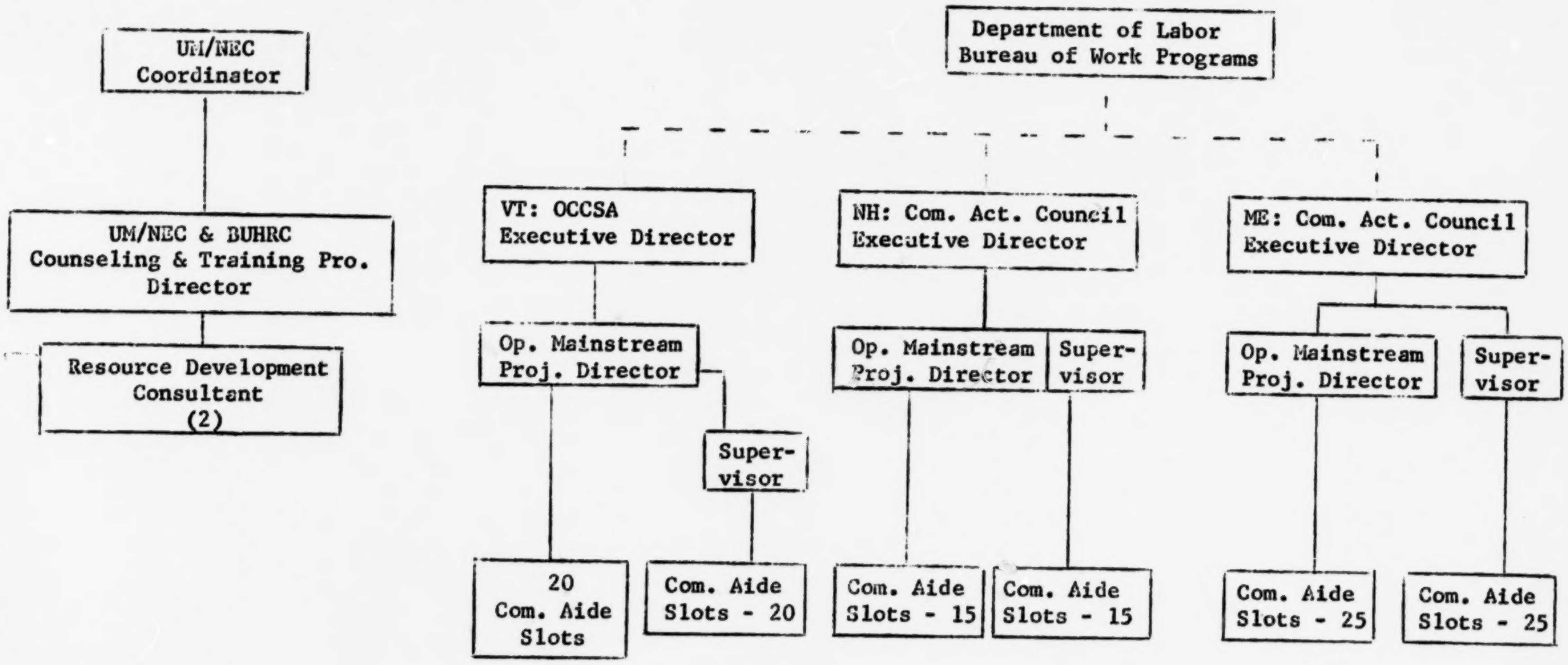
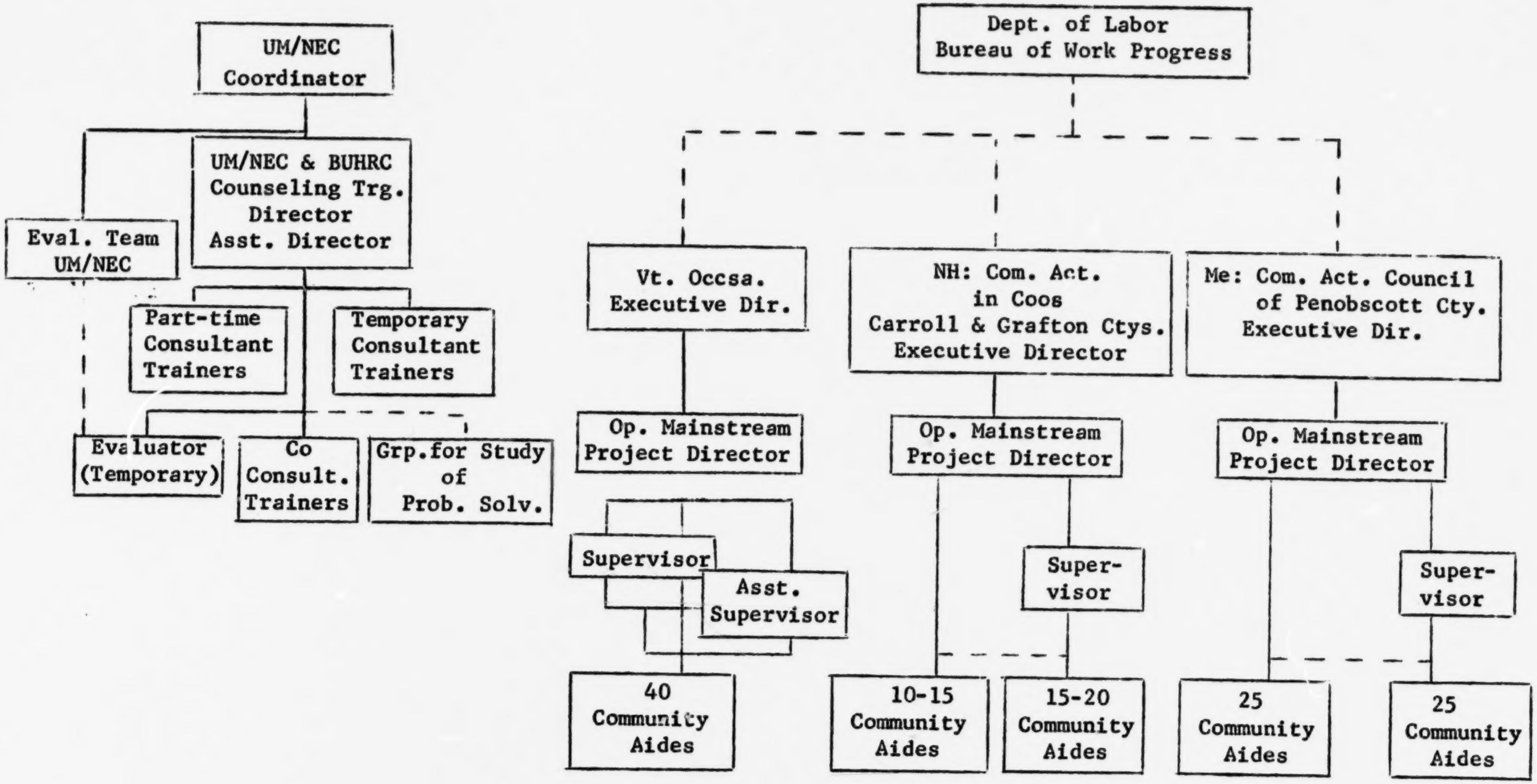

UM/NEC
Coordinator
UM/NEC & BUHRC
Counseling & Training Pro.
Director
Resource Development
Consultant
(2)
Department of Labor
Bureau of Work Programs
VT: OCCSA
Executive Director
NH: Com. Act. Council
Executive Director
ME: Com. Act. Council
Executive Director
Op. Mainstream
Proj. Director
Super-
visor
20
Com. Aide
Slots
Com. Aide
Slots - 20
Op. Mainstream
Proj. Director
Super-
visor
Com. Aide
Slots - 15
Com. Aide
Slots - 15
Op. Mainstream
Proj. Director
Super-
visor
Com. Aide
Slots - 25
Com. Aide
Slots - 25

Figure 2

CURRENT OPERATIONAL STRUCTURE
July 1968


UM/NEC Coordinator
Eval. Team UM/NEC
UM/NEC & BUHRC Counseling Trg. Director Asst. Director
Part-time Consultant Trainers
Temporary Consultant Trainers
Evaluator (Temporary)
Co Consult. Trainers
Grp.for Study of Prob. Solv.
Dept. of Labor Bureau of Work Progress
Vt. Occsa. Executive Dir.
NH: Com. Act. in Coos Carroll & Grafton Ctys. Executive Director
Me: Com. Act. Council of Penobscott Cty. Executive Dir.
Op. Mainstream Project Director
Op. Mainstream Project Director
Op. Mainstream Project Director
Supervisor
Asst. Supervisor
Super-visor
Super-visor
40 Community Aides
10-15 Community Aides
15-20 Community Aides
25 Community Aides
25 Community Aides

In addition to the fixed criteria established by the OEO, other criteria evolved from the supervisor-trainer dialogues. (See Appendix B.) These criteria varied from state to state but among them several common elements could be identified. It was necessary that aides know how to read and write so they could submit and receive reports. Aides needed to have some form of transportation to reach families in the rural areas. It was desirable that aides have some need for the O.M. program, that they would become interested in it and see the program as their primary responsibility. It was important for supervisors to feel they could work harmoniously with persons who would function as aides. Finally, some rural areas required aides who were bilingual.

Other criteria which evolved were the following: flexibility - willingness to risk new behavior; a sense of helping - both self and others; sensitivity and sincerity; respect for persons with problems; ability to ask questions when issues are vague; ability to listen; ability to refrain from premature decisions; perseverance; ability to relate well with peers; recognition of the right and responsibility of people to make their own decisions; ability to organize; ability to be constructively critical of one's own work and others' work without creating a feeling of failure; and ability to refrain from evaluating solutions until all the information is in. These are ideal qualities which are difficult to find among professional helping workers as well as non-professionals. However, such criteria provided useful reference points for supervisors to use in recruiting aides. The law of supply and demand required supervisors to modify their model criteria according to the number of people available and interested in working in the project. In summary, supervisors selected the best qualified people among those who were available.

Selection Process

The selection of aides was not an isolated event which took place at the beginning of the program year but was a continuous process. Aides were recruited in the initial stages of the project and also throughout the year when replacements were required. Applicants were identified and referred to supervisors by social workers, county extension agents, local clergy, community officials, CAP personnel, local storekeepers, doctors, school personnel, welfare workers, and the peers of aides who had already been selected. Federal, state, and non-profit agencies aided in locating and referring applicants. Supervisors interviewed applicants using locally developed interview schedules (See Appendix B). If a decision to hire was made, the supervisor documented the rationale for the decision.

Characteristics of Aides

Tables 1-5 provide basic statistical data on the aides. At the time of their employment aides could be characterized as having financial need, having families of their own, middle-aged, and having a tenth grade education. Eighty-five percent of the aides were women. Other sources of data suggest that the aides were initially satisfied with being hired as aides; possessed self-concepts as doers; were enthusiastic for tangible projects; were willing to learn; felt they had something to offer; had their own personal problems; were comfortable with their peers; were basically honest; and had substantial life experiences as low-income persons.

Table 1
Distribution of Aides by Age

Age	New Hampshire	Maine	Vermont	Total
60 +	5	2	4	11
50 - 59	3	6	7	16
40 - 49	7	13	10	30
30 - 39	10	21	9	40
20 - 29	5	3	8	16
	30	45	38	113

M = 42.8 SD = 10

Table 2
Distribution of Aides by Gross Household Income - 1966

Gross Income	New Hampshire	Maine	Vermont	Total
$4,500 +	8	3	2	13
$4,000 - 4,499	3	4	3	10
$3,500 - 3,999	2	6	3	11
$3,000 - 3,499	3	5	8	16
$2,500 - 2,999	3	3	7	13
$2,000 - 2,499	3	6	3	12
$1,500 - 1,999	3	3	6	12
$1,000 - 1,499	1	1	2	4
$ 500 - 999	4	14	1	19
	30	45	35	110

M = 2231.36 SD = 1310.00

Table 3
Distribution of Aides by Number in Household

No. in Household	New Hampshire	Maine	Vermont	Total
11 - 12	-	-	1	1
9 - 10	3	5	3	11
7 - 8	2	11	1	14
5 - 6	7	14	6	27
3 - 4	13	12	9	34
1 - 2	5	3	16	24
	30	45	36	111

M = 5.12 SD = 2.4

Table 4
Distribution of Aides by Sex

	New Hampshire	Maine	Vermont	Total
Male	6	4	7	17
Female	24	41	31	96
	30	45	38	113

Table 5
Distribution of Aides by Education

Education	New Hampshire	Maine	Vermont	Total
16	1	-	-	1
15	1	-	-	1
14	2	3	1	6
13	-	2	3	5
12	5	21	15	42
11	4	3	3	10
10	3	4	4	11
9	1	2	2	5
8	13	9	10	32
	30	44	38	112

M = 10.65 SD = 2.03

VI THE OPERATION MAINSTREAM COUNSELING TRAINING PROGRAM: PRINCIPLES, CONTENT, AND ACTIVITIES

The purpose of the Operation Mainstream counseling training project was to change the behavior of the aides so that they would acquire problem-solving and helping skills which they could use in helping others to solve their own problems. This part of the report describes the Operation Mainstream counseling training program - the basic concepts on which it is based, its content, and its activities.*

Basic Concepts in the Operation Mainstream Counseling Training Program

Problem-Solving:

Problem-solving can be described conceptually as a rational, systematic process at a normative level. However, it is psychologically influenced and idiosyncratically applied by each person whenever a problem not resolvable by habit occurs.

Because the problem-solving process can be described in what appears to be a step-wise procedure, initially it seemed that all the trainees had to do was to provide people with a list of steps and help them practice applying the steps starting with step one and ending with step ten.

However, before any actual training in problem-solving began it was realized that different people have different starting places in problem-solving, that many people intermingle parts of the process and yet still succeed as well as those using a more normative approach. For example, some people appear to start with an explicit first statement of the problem, 'others begin with an implicit statement and proceed immediately to collecting information about the problem in much the same way that one goes about setting up pieces for a jig saw puzzle before actually working on the puzzle. Others collect data first but do it in such a way that each piece is analyzed carefully before the next piece is sought. Another approach is to make some beginning statement and move immediately to locating a proposed solution and, with a sense of security derived from knowing that the problem seems solvable, return to collecting more explicit information and generating other proposals for solution.

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* The major portion of this part of the report (pages 18-33) is a modification of a working paper - "Counseling Training in Operation Mainstream: Outline of Principles and Crises" - written by John B. Marvin, director of the counseling training program, and Samuel M. Kelman, assistant director of the program.

It was also noted that while any of these approaches could be equally effective, any of them could easily become ineffective if carried to an extreme or completed prematurely. For example, some become so bogged down in data collection and/or data analysis that they never make a decision about what the problem is. Others jump prematurely into applying a solution only to find that it doesn't work or even that they have created new problems.

Thus instead of presenting a normative system for problem-solving, it is preferable to encourage people to identify their own starting point and procedure and then use the normative outline to determine if whole steps have been left out, left prematurely, or tended to monopolize one's energy. The task then becomes not necessarily of reordering the process but rather making effective that process already in use.

For example, it was found that community aides have a tendency to prematurely accept a statement of a problem, immediately propose a single strongly held solution and rarely experience success. This led to workshops that attempted to merely expand the range of solutions that aides could consider. Expanding that range resulted in having to consider at least some testing of several solutions and, in planning for testing, aides discovered that more data about the problem was needed. As more data was collected, invariably the statement of the problem changed to a more sophisticated and basic problem.

In another situation aides were found basically to be collecting data from clients but not knowing why or what to do with it. A frequent complaint was, "I'm not accomplishing anything - I just go and listen to them talk." To begin coping with this situation, supervisors were helped to structure workshops focusing on aides setting goals for themselves in relation to their clients and determining sub-goals or immediate next steps. Once goals and next steps were set, aides then had some way of evaluating their effectiveness. As this particular concern is quite complex and important it was evident that much more work, particularly in helping aides develop more explicit and realistic next steps, was needed.

An issue which caused considerable confusion and grief was that of community development versus individual or family problem-solving. Initially this issue emerged out of the lack of clarity within CAP agencies about program goals. In all three states CAP directors believed that community aides would be more like general CAP field staff. As such they would conduct surveys, recruit people for Neighborhood Youth Corps, develop day care centers, sewing circles, social clubs for the elderly, conduct clothing drives and establish thrift shops, etc. It appeared that aides were to be so busy doing community service projects that there would be little relevance for training as consultants to individuals and families in problem-solving. To some extent these issues were resolved through clarification of goals and clarification of the relationship of aides to other CAP programs. Specifically it was made clear that aides were not to be used as the menial manual labor of the other CAP programs. This was not at all well received in some quarters.

A later version of the same issue continued to crop up in two states in which "community problems" had been "defined" such as, "We need a dental clinic," or, "We need a day care center." Because of the earlier difficulty around such issues, the requests for using aides to do the ground work on such projects was presented in such terms as "You are against doing what this community needs to have done - why isn't it right for community aides to do these kinds of things?"

The countering explanation was admittedly not palatable to some CAP personnel. Trainers assured them that they had nothing against day care centers or dental clinics, nor did they have anything against aides becoming involved in such projects but they were concerned about why and how aides became involved. For example, if in a community several aides encountered families in which the wife would and could go to work if it weren't for her small children at home, it was hoped that the aide would help these families come together, share their common concerns and mobilize to do something about their common problem The aide's role could then remain that of a consultant in problem-solving, her clients should have been helped to solve their problems, and the community might well have the day care center that the CAP staff felt it should have. The trainers felt that there need be no conflict between community development techniques and consulting on problem-solving but that the decision for action should be based on known problems in known families and that the families, if given a chance, could mobilize as well as, and perhaps better than, the aide to do the leg work required.

Helping Others to Help Themselves:

While helping others to help themselves is a basic tenet of Operation Mainstream, operationalizing this tenet was filled with confusion, disagreement, and frustration. The difficulty centered around two questions: who are the clients and what constitutes help.

From the training staff's viewpoint, there were several levels of clients. The training staff's clients were the sponsoring agency, the local project staff, and the aides. Project staffs' clients were the aides; the clients of the aides were individuals and families who were poor and in need of help. Of these client groups there were two primary target groups to be considered, the aides and their clients.

The disagreement centered around whether or not clients of the aides were an essential client group. The training staff maintained that of course they were.

For quite a while they maintained that not only were clients for the aides essential but also the ultimate test of program effectiveness should be in terms of changes occurring within the aides' client group. At various times and to various degrees, each local program maintained that ultimate evaluation would be made in terms of increased employability of aides and that whatever activities would help increase employability, those should be the activities in which aides should be engaged. Thus from the local point of view, it appeared at times that, if aides never had clients, it would be fine as long as aides would be employable when they emerged from the program. As the training staff had been hired to provide a training program which would train aides to become effective helpers in problem-solving, they found this occasional local point of view rather unacceptable.

This issue never was tested operationally. However, resolution required that some compromise be made. The training staff conceded that because the aides were the most visible population, the most accessible to evaluation, and of the most immediate concern to CAP agencies, changes in the aides, including increased employability, would be the primary measures of program effectiveness. They also looked the other way when they heard of pockets of aides engaged in activities which had nothing to do with clients. On their part, the local project staffs realized that in learning to help others, aides were also learning to help themselves. As a result aides were more encouraged to engage with clients so that all but a few aides were working with families and individuals.

There are at least three sources that contributed to the confusion around clients for aides. In the first place, while the narrative proposal on which Operation Mainstream was based included clients for aides, the narrative was written by the University of Maine Coordinator and not required as part of the application for funds as submitted to the Department of Labor by the local CAP agencies. This would have caused little or no problem had there been sufficient opportunity for conversation between the University of Maine Coordinator and the CAP agencies. However, because of their internal funding situation, the Department of Labor had to encourage unusually rapid submission of applications which provided little time for the CAP agencies to consider for what they were applying and for the University of Maine Coordinator to do much in the way of communicating. Hence, each CAP agency tended to form a set of assumptions about the program and, in most cases, these assumptions were different from the University of Maine Coordinator's narrative.

The second source of confusion stems from the fact that Operation Mainstream was in actuality a budget category within the Department of Labor and that there were many Operation Mainstream projects around the country. However, this Operation Mainstream project was considerably different from all the others which were based on specific work training programs that had increased employability as a goal. Of course in work training programs the focus would be on enrollees and there would be no other client group. While it appears clear that the Department of Labor recognized this Operation Mainstream project as different from the typical project, the same guidelines define quite authoritatively what an Operation Mainstream project usually is and that definition is quite dissimilar to the counseling project's definition. For the CAP director who abided closely to the book and had not had sufficient opportunity to understand the uniqueness of this project, it was small wonder that he would have difficulty understanding the concerns of the training staff for having a client group for aides.

The third source of confusion stemmed from the first two. Left to their own musings, CAP directors tended to see community aides as adjunctive field staff personnel who would do the many tasks left undone because of the limited number of CAP personnel. The emphasis on community aides finding and working with clients as quickly as possible was naturally discouraging to the CAP staff who thought that they had just acquired between thirty and fifty pairs of arms and legs.

Difficulties around the definition of help emanated from the trouble aides had in incorporating the training staff's particular approach to the helping relationship. From the trainers' point of view and increasingly from the local staffs' point of view help occurs when one, a helpee, is able to utilize the resources of another, the helper, to solve his own problem. The ultimate helping relationship is one in which the helper functions purely as a facilitator in helping the helpee define his problem, form goals, discover an alternative for action, form a plan of action and evaluate the outcomes. In such a situation the helper encourages a thorough exploration of the situation and steps in resolving it. He facilitates a thought process; he does not tell the helpee what to do. Very rarely, in such instances, does the helper have any role in carrying out the helpee's plan of action; that is the helpee's task.

In Operation Mainstream trainers and supervisors were attempting to help aides achieve the ultimate as described above in the helping relationship. In addition, because so many of the problems of clients were highly personal and of long standing, aides needed to be able to develop a high level of mutual trust with their clients. These are difficult tasks for anyone, but particularly so for people who had so many problems themselves and for whom life had been a constant series of failures.

As the aides began working with their client families there was a high need on their part to provide tangible help for the clients. Initially, aides spent most of their time providing food, clothing, fuel, transportation, baby-sitting and other direct services to their clients. Although the aides were able to recognize that these services had not been helpful to them in the past they felt that they had no alternate ways of being helpful and thus could only get personal satisfaction by providing a direct service. Fused with this feeling was a high need to demonstrate to their supervisors, clients and themselves that they could do something. For some of the aides this seemed to arise from prevalent feelings of failure in past life and a great need to succeed immediately in order to make up for past failures.

As the aides learned from their own experience that providing tangible help was only momentarily satisfying to themselves and their clients and that in addition it was becoming "a drag," there was a shift to helping by making referrals of clients to community agencies. Tangible help became seen as a contingency action and a means of buying entrance into a client's home. As the families became more comfortable with the aides and were able to discuss their problems with the aides, the latter apparently felt overwhelmed and unable to do anything but send the clients to professionals. Referrals were frequently made too quickly to be appropriate and even when referrals were appropriate, existing agencies were frequently unable to provide help.

Again, as the aides learned from their experience, frequently quite painful, there was a shift in approach. Many of the aides began actively working with their families; trying to help families explore their problems and develop better means of coping with their problems. While this was seen as progress, there were still many problems ahead. There was a tendency for aides to form plans as to how clients should go about solving their problems rather than helping the clients arrive at their own solution. When these solutions were not carried out by the client, there were feelings of failure and anger at the client. Other aides learned that they were "not supposed to do" for their clients and believed that they should sit and passively wait for the client to "figure things out" rather than actively engaging with the client to help him understand his problems.

Principles of Training:

1. Principles of Individual's Responsibility for Own Learning and Experience of Discovery Learning. Knowledge is most effectively acquired and actively used if one is allowed to accept responsibility for his own learning. This is particularly true when the area of learning involves abstract concepts or "intangible" outcomes as is encountered in learning how to help others become effective problem-solvers. The process seems to involve self determination of what one needs to know and having experiences upon which one reflects and makes discoveries. Each involves the interpretation or diagnosis of events. Self determination focuses on the present and future, i.e., determining where one is and where one needs to be and then taking an active role in obtaining the desired end. Discovery learning focuses

on past experience out of which conceptual discoveries emerge to help understand what and why things happened and then proceeding to form more effective plans for the future.

The privilege of self determination in the encouragement of discovery learning represents quite a different model from the usual educational experience. Usually not only what is to be learned but also how is imposed on the learner through highly structured curricula that provide little if any choice for individual goals. The student is goaded on by the fear of bad grades, the lure of good grades, or an alluring way of packaging the unpleasant medicine. Luring and goads are functional perhaps either when outcomes can be concretely determined or when it is not considered essential that the student actively put his knowledge to work.

Concrete, visible results are difficult, at best, to demonstrate when the task is to help people help themselves. Furthermore, the emphasis in Operation Mainstream was actively to apply knowledge and not merely passively to retain facts or concepts.

Shifting from the more traditional model to a model of accepting responsibility for one's own learning is of course a rather difficult experience. Most of us do not think of educational situations as permitting us to take that much initiative, and we have our forced feeding habits set. In the case of Operation Mainstream, there was the added difficulty of aides and supervisors alike, for the most part, feeling that they had very little information on which to reflect or to use in order to define what kind of creature they were trying to become. For some of the supervisors there was the added fear that permitting aides to accept that much responsibility would lead to nothing because the aides could not be trusted, and the supervisors' concern that they would not be able to meet the needs of the aides.

In some instances both training staff and supervisors imposed learning and encountered a variety of obstacles as a result. It was found that aides learned the right words such as problem-solving, listening, relationship building, etc. While both trainers and supervisors thought aides were applying these new learnings it was discovered that the vocabulary had no correlates in practice. One supervisor particularly had difficulty in permitting aides to accept their own learning responsibility. He would tell aides what an aide is, what problem-solving is, and how to help people. When he discovered that his wisdom was falling on deaf ears he would tell them again. Eventually the aides learned what to say to the supervisor in meetings and reports which, it appears, reflected little of their actual experiences as aides. The price was a breakdown in communication and much criticism of the supervisor behind his back.

2. Principle of Evolution. An evolutionary model of programming is a necessary concomitant to permit people to accept responsibility for their own learning. Of course in an experimental program such as Operation Mainstream an evolutionary approach was particularly relevant because it was difficult to predict when specific content needs would be prevalent in other than a very general way. Hence trainers did not develop a curriculum for teaching people problem-solving and helping skills. Rather they worked on developing an overall conceptual model for problem-solving and helping skills on one hand and engaged in a careful and mutual diagnosis of what were current issues or needs of aides on the other. They then helped

the supervisors plan a series of experiences, such as a workshop, based on the general guidelines of the conceptual model and the specific concerns of the aides. Whether aides changed in their behavior or no longer expressed the same needs was a measure of the effect of the evolutionary principle.

An evolutionary approach to content areas does not reflect the absence or lack of structure although at times it was perceived as such. On the contrary, it was felt that structured procedures for obtaining and utilizing data were required. Hence, four procedures were developed. These were a monthly evaluation session, weekly planning sessions, a monthly workshop and weekly supervisory training sessions.

Once a month, the CAP director, the director and assistant director of counseling training, and the project staff met together to collect data, feedback to one another, engage in general contracting, and evaluate the prior month's experience. The monthly evaluation session also had the specific task of updating and involving the CAP director who had no other structural access to the training staff. In general, this monthly meeting did not match the expectation of the training staff. Part of the problem was that the staff had not sufficiently made their expectation explicit to anyone, including themselves. Another part of the problem is that in two states the meetings tended to be dominated by internal CAP control struggles that frequently became acted out towards the training staff. However, while being the scapegoat was an unpleasant role, lack of confronting CAP personnel with their issues in a direct and helpful way suggests that we have more fear of that confrontation than we do of being scapegoated. We need to look at this more fully.

The weekly planning session involved the training staff member as consultant-trainer to a local project staff. These sessions included diagnosis of where the aides as a group were, and based on that diagnosis, evolving a training plan for the ensuing week. When necessary, this session also provided an opportunity for supervisors to work on interpersonal issues with the help of a consultant. In these weekly planning sessions, supervisory personnel received training in planning for problem-solving, workshop design, utilizing consultants, dynamics of the aide population, evaluation and confrontation models as well as emerging with a plan of action.

On a monthly basis one or two members of the consultant-trainer staff were available to each state for consulting on and participating in monthly workshops for all aides. Initially the local planning team consisted only of supervisory personnel but eventually in all states two to four aides were being utilized in planning and staffing workshops. From everyone's point of view the involvement of aides in staff activities was quite valuable for participating aides. They seemed to feel closer to supervisors, receive another training experience, take more responsibility and function more effectively in their daily activities. However, some interesting dynamics appeared which may indicate negative effects, as well. For example, in one instance the consultant-trainers behaved more supportively toward the aides than toward supervisors. This resulted in a coalition of consultant-trainers and aides which produced feelings of exclusion on the part of the supervisors. In another state, the supervisors responded to the introduction of aides to planning by suggesting that either training staff or supervisors withdraw from planning. The sources of these issues were not completely identified and there was some concern that premature decisions would be made that would provide symptomatic relief only. It was thought that a first step should be a review of goals, purposes, and roles for each group's involvement in workshop planning and then based on the outcome of that review an appropriate decision would emerge.

The fourth procedure, supervisory training, involved a consultant-trainer and a local staff member in a one-to-one application of problem-solving planning, around problems involving specific aides. In this experience the consultant provided a role model for the supervisor who in turn worked weekly or biweekly with aides on an individual basis. These sessions were akin to a mental health consultation where clinical supervision attempts to deal with highly personal issues in the aide and/or between the supervisor and aide. These sessions made the greatest demands on supervisory personnel for discovering and confronting the intangible aspects of human dynamics. Probably because of the latter two aspects, individual supervisory training was the most threatening unit of the training staff's activities with supervisors. However, progress was made as it became clearer to the supervisor that the trainers were not expecting them to become therapists and that they did not have to take responsibility for all the problems the aides had. As they encountered their aides more and more in one-to-one sessions, they became more consciously aware of their own needs for help in developing skills.

3. Principle of Role Modeling. The supervisory training session perhaps best illustrates one of the most controversial principles in the counseling training program, that of role modeling the consultant on problem-solving. Simply stated, the principle is that each person in the program should work towards incorporating the role model provided by the consultant-trainers. The training staff attempted to help supervisory personnel become more effective in coping with problems around specific aides; supervisors, in turn, attempted to use the same model in their sessions with aides; and aides, hopefully, were incorporating the same model in their work with their clients.

Obviously the principle made very great demands on everyone involved, but particularly on the supervisors. Although it was difficult for training staff at times, they had experience in such roles. Aides, for the most part, had not yet encountered the role model sufficiently to feel highly committed to it and only halfway through the program did they begin trying to model problem-solving skills with their clients. In addition, aides were not dealing with as visible a client population as were supervisors and therefore the aides had the added difficulty of identifying their clients. Supervisors had as their clients the highly visible aides. Both supervisors and aides did not have the benefit of prior training or experience in such a role model and had many fears, voiced and unvoiced, about whether they could do an adequate job of incorporating and modeling in turn. For these reasons the utilization of the role-modeling principle was met with resistance and disguised panic. Yet, supervisors grew tremendously in their ability to function as a meaningful role-model for aides. This became quite apparent in how they would talk and about what they would talk in their sessions with training staff. They revealed a rapidly growing awareness of dynamics in themselves and aides, and an ability to utilize these dynamics in their planning. They also showed an eagerness for conplete feedback, and slowly but surely a growing grasp of an orderly approach to problem-solving. However, their anxiety remained high and the training staff was constantly alert for new symptoms of its existence. From the reports of the aides and the supervisors, similar statements began to occur with aides, as well.

A problem that seems relevant at this point is the way that a role-model is incorporated. For example, in supervisors and, to a lesser but an increasing extent, in aides, there was a tendency to incorporate jargon and style more readily than attitudes and skills in helping and problem-solving. This is not a problem unique to Mainstream, for the same signs occur in sophomoric trainers and therapists. But while such an occurrence may be tolerable in the beginning trainer, it would be a tremendous loss of a vital resource in Mainstream; i.e., the ability of the aide to be perceived and responded to as a peer by his or her clients. Trainers were very concerned that as aides grew in this program they would begin to shift class identities and thus become less available to peers who sought their help. Certainly the incorporation of style and jargon of a trainer would not help to maintain their image of being a peer to their clients. The pressures, formal and informal, to abide by middle class standards of dress were unfortunate enough. What would you think if your next door neighbor whom you had known for twenty years suddenly appeared in your living room all dressed up and started sputtering phrases such as, "Let's collect more data on that problem," or "Let's see, what alternatives for action can you think of?"

4. Principle of the Right to Fail. Closely entwined with permitting people to accept responsibility for their own learning and a vital prerequisite to role-modeling, as employed in the Operation Mainstream program, is the right to make mistakes and even to fail. If we encourage people to obtain experience in trying to be helpful to others in problem-solving and then to learn and improve on their skills, it is evident that mistakes, even seemingly major blunders, will and must occur. How can one improve his performance if no mistakes are made? It seems like such a basic and necessary principle, yet it is greatly feared and resisted.

In the first place, no one likes to experience or admit failure. In the second place, many people external to the program appear to look forward to finding mistakes, blunders and failures. There are those who would like to see failure because of federal agency battles for control of antipoverty program funds. There are those members of other agencies and communities who fear that the Operation Mainstream counseling training project is attempting to produce pseudo-caseworkers who will either harm others or, if not, will pose a threat to their agencies. There are those who take issue with the goal of helping individuals and families define and solve problems as opposed to a goal of becoming community organizers to combat such problems as unemployment, sub-standard housing, etc. Finally, there are those who take issue with the kinds of principles and training approaches outlined in this report. All of these people might be quite pleased with the failure of Operation Mainstream.

These sources of desire to see failure caused anguish for the supervisors who didn't want to be identified with failure. For some of the supervisors, there was an attempt to shift responsibility for what happened in Operation Mainstream to the training staff. For others, there was a reduced willingness to take risks or to permit aides to take risks. At several points of severe crisis and fear of failure there were renewed pressures for training staff to take over all aide training functions either to "save the day" or become the immediately obvious scapegoat. When these situations occurred, it was a difficult but necessary chore to cut through and find out from what source the fear of failure was arising. The training staff then tried to deal with that fear and as it became once again subdued, found the demands for them to assume responsibility and more direct activity dissipating -- until the next crisis.

Another aspect of the issue around failure and a source of anger towards the training staff is the assumption that there is some mysterious right way for functioning as a supervisor or community aide, just as many beginning therapists or trainers know that there must be a therapeutic magic wand. There is an implicitly stated assumption that training staff knows what that wand is and exactly how to use it, but that for some reason the trainers are holding out. That the staff resists letting others in on the secret means that they don't care, they'll let them fail. For those who began to realize that the trainers didn't know of "the right way," there were some signs of suspecting the staff's competence, which tended to lead to another source of fearing failure.

Training Activities by Supervisors:

A number of training activities for the aides were conducted by the supervisors themselves during the year in cooperation with local community agencies. See Appendix C. A series of workshops, didactic in nature, were developed for the purpose of describing the role of the multiple community services available. Over a period of time the community aides accumulated a long list of agencies that could be of service to the client families, if needed. Some of the agencies and services described are listed below:

- legal aid
- Social Security
- employment security
- manpower training
- veterans' services
- Medicare
- Operation Headstart
- health clinics
- eye care and special services
- aid to unwed mothers
- federal housing programs
- surplus food programs
- Upward Bound

Armed with the knowledge of these services, it was natural for the aides, after hearing the apparent problems of client families, to categorize family needs and refer clients to appropriate agencies. When this took place the aides became involved, providing the necessary services to carry out the referrals. As a result, the supervisors designed several programs centering around the issues involved when the aides took direct action on behalf of a client family as opposed to helping the client family take steps on its own behalf.

The supervisors also conducted weekly individual sessions with each of the community aides. These meetings provided an opportunity to share information together on the progress and problems which the aides experienced as they worked with client families and gave them an opportunity to discuss their own personal problems from time to time.

VII EVALUATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of the evaluation of Operation Mainstream was to answer the question: To what degree has the Operation Mainstream counseling training project been successful in achieving its stated objectives? To answer this question we read and evaluated (1) the written narrations of aides; (2) documentation reports of trainer-supervisor dialogues and training sessions; and (3) program agenda for training sessions. In addition, we interviewed supervisors; observed a training session; and participated in several dialogues with the training staff. We did not interview community aides nor any members of their client families, which limits the validity of our data.

On the basis of the data we collected, it is evident that the following objectives were successfully achieved:

> To help supervisors and community aides to increase knowledge, develop skills, and change attitudes in the specific areas of:
>
> 1. Referral: Recognition of problems that can be handled by others; behavior in cases needing referral.
> 2. Facilities, agencies, and programs available in the community.

3. Ways of relating to community resources and persons.

It appears that the following objectives were partially achieved:

To help supervisors and community aides to increase knowledge, develop skills, and change attitudes in the specific areas of:

4. Self-knowledge: Freeing the self to understand and use one's own abilities, undertaking a helping relationship with others.

5. Communication: Expressing and receiving ideas and feelings.

6. Problem-solving: Using facts and knowledge systematically in decision making.

7. Interviewing: Establishing rapport and climate in face-to-face contact with others to help them face problems, collect data, make decisions.

8. Personal limitations: What can and cannot be done in the community aide role.

Data drawn from the aides' narrations of their activities indicate that they were primarily involved in assisting people who had medical problems, financial problems, and problems relating to employment - in that order. It is difficult to categorize the types of problems the aides dealt with since so many of the problems interlocked with one another. A random sampling of the client problems which aides encountered reveals the following:

"Family needs vitamins - getting hearing aids."

"These people need transportation to get children to a doctor or dentist."

"Wife expecting - heat in apartment inadequate."

"Man deaf - practically blind - getting $40.00 per month social security."

"Mother wants help for child - feels doctors don't know too much."

"Woman lonely - husband and she drink."

"Couple 80 years old - need surplus food."

"Son in special class - woman needs ear operation."

"Child mentally retarded - mother needs help."

"Medicade needed for family - widow has five children - one mentally retarded."

"Large family needs clothes and shoes for children."

"Hot lunches and medical shots for four children in family."

"Drove a child - heart patient to hospital."

"Father sick, unemployed - five children, electricity to be shut off."

"Client with terminal disease."

"Child is kept out of school to keep company with mother."

"Husband receiving treatment in state hospital - wife doesn't know what to do."

"Mother suicide leaving several children."

"Child with crossed eye - mother doesn't know where to turn for help."

"Husband killed, children without underwear, winter clothing, blankets, mattresses and sheets for beds."

"Seventy year old woman who needs drugs."

"Couple in their eighties who have no transportation, no telephone service, may lose electric service."

"Family burned out - mother and father and seven children lost everything. No insurance - neighbors have taken them in. They need clothing, furniture, and a place to live."

"It was so cold in his room that the milk froze on the shelf beside his chair where he sat to keep warm. Got a stove for him - he is warm now."

The aides' reported involvement with their clients seemed to occur mostly at the concrete level of assistance. Many aides functioned as "leg-men" for Community Action Programs, as referral agents, chauffeurs, intermediaries between community agencies and clients, as babysitters, food stamp distributors, survey collectors, day care assistants, and as "instructors" on how to fill out Medicaide forms.

There are several factors which explain, or could explain, the high level of concrete activity reported by the aides.

1. The role and function of the Operation Mainstream community aide was not clearly understood by members of the communities in which they worked. This was partially due to the lack of clarity within CAP agencies about the program goals of the counseling training project. CAP directors perceived and expected aides to function as community service agents who would do things to and for people rather than helping people to help themselves. Community aides were viewed more as medial "loose ends" coordinators than as consultants in helping relationships and problem-solving processes. As a result aides experienced considerable difficulty in defining their roles and establishing their work identities as problem-solving and helping relationship consultants.

2. A number of aides did not feel comfortable in the new experience of assisting people to assist themselves. One aide commented:

"The part of the program which I cannot fully understand is the solving of people's problems by discussion with them. I realize this is a very important thing with low income families in solving their every day living problems.

"However, I believe to accomplish this with these families you would have to be a relative, a close friend or you would have to be trained to be a professional case worker."

Another aide said:

"I find it difficult to introduce myself to strangers. I have to do something - just have to feel I'm earning my pay."

What these statements seem to suggest is that basic and concrete needs must first be met before clients and aides can appropriately and comfortably conceptualize and internalize therapeutic and problem-solving models. Individuals in the lower socio-economic class have a concrete conceptualization of life and in the evolutionary development of problem-solving and helping relationship competencies perhaps it is to be expected that initially aides will find it easier and more comfortable to offer concrete services and that their client families will be looking for such services.

3. The written narrations from which data regarding aide activity were derived were spotty in the quality and the quantity of the information they contained. For some aides there was virtually no qualitative data available in their reports. Other aides were sketchy and inarticulate in what they wrote. Still other aides provided complete data on their activities and reactions to their experiences with client families. Because the available data we analyzed did not reveal a high level of problem-solving and helping relationship activity, this does not

necessarily mean that such activity did not occur. In dealing with the written narratives of the aides we were examining recorded perceptions and recalled behavior and not directly observed behavior.

When we observed a training session in operation we were struck by the issues aides discussed in relation to counseling and problem-solving skills. The problems they had encountered and were exploring in the training session were the very real problems that confront professional counselors and about which much is written in professional journals. The aides were concerned with: Looking beyond the presenting problem used as an entreé by a client into a helping relationship; Empathic listening; Being genuine, honest, and open; Understanding themselves as well as their clients; Learning how to help the client develop his own solutions rather than imposing solutions on him; Conveying a "caring" attitude; and helping the client to use his own resources.

There were some comments in the narrations written by the aides to indicate that what we observed in the training session was not an isolated event. The following aide statements seem to reflect problem-solving and helping relationship attitudes and skills:

> "Trying to help her to express her fears if any on what is to happen to the family - how she can help herself."
>
> "Gaining goals for clients is very important but an aide should first set a goal for themselves before dealing with the client."

> "I am finally learning as when it is best to stand back and listen. Believe me I want so much for this to be a project the people will participate in. I honestly believe it is high time. The Federal Government Funds can be put to some real substantial use and the citizens of _________ can watch it grow if they really want this."

> "Families I have called on several times seem to be changing their needs."

In summary, on the basis of recorded behavior most aides appeared to be doers for their clients in the sense of providing direct concrete assistance to help their clients with medical, economic, employment, educational, and marital problems. There was some evidence to suggest that several aides were functioning as consultants in problem-solving and helping relationships.

EVALUATION
by Aides and Supervisors

As part of our effort to gather more data on the personal reaction of the Community Aides and Supervisors to the Operation Mainstream Counselor Training Program, a simple questionnaire was devised and circulated one month prior to the completion of the first year. The Aides and Supervisors alike were asked to remain anonymous when answering the following questions:

1. What do you feel are strengths of the Operation Mainstream counseling training program?
2. What do you feel are weaknesses or limitations of the Operation Mainstream counseling training program? What improvements or activities would you suggest?

Twenty-seven questionnaires were returned from Maine; seventeen were returned from New Hampshire and five were returned from Vermont. Most of the aides and supervisors agreed on what they felt were strengths of the counselor training program. Some of the most commonly listed strengths were the following:

1. The opportunity to gain a greater degree of self-reliance and a greater understanding of themselves as they help their peers deal with their problems, using the problem-solving process.
2. Learning how to listen to others and as a result, becoming more sensitive to the needs of their own family.
3. Participating in the planning of workshops that were focused on their learning needs. This participation increased the meaningfulness of their learning experience.
4. Participating in open discussion groups in an atmosphere of acceptance and frankness among the aides as they discussed mutual problems.
5. The opportunity to gain a better understanding of their role in the community as people who are needed.
6. The freedom to act on their own and the confidence that their supervisors showed in their ability to act responsibly.

In answer to Question 2, the following recommendations were made:

1. At the outset of the program, there should be a clearer definition of roles by the project director and supervisors.
2. There should be a clearer understanding on the part of the community as to what the Operation Mainstream program is all about, thereby enlisting the community support at an earlier date.
3. There should be more intensive training in the beginning of the program and opportunities to continue this training weekly throughout the program. There should also be more opportunities to work with their supervisors and trainers on a one-to-one basis.
4. There needs to be a better understanding of the problem-solving process itself and opportunities to apply the process under controlled conditions.
5. More reading material should be provided on the theories of problem-solving and its applications.

Some of the less common recommendations were:

1. More time should be spent on explaining the goals of the training sessions.
2. More publicity is needed for the program.
3. More opportunity should be given the aides to do tangible work in the community.
4. There should be less dramatization of minor points of the subject matter.
5. More information should be given about the availability of services from other community agencies.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. It would be very helpful to aides in their development as effective problem-solving and human relationship consultants to tape record their sessions with their clients. Tape recordings yield a richness and quality of data which is difficult to obtain from any other type of measuring instrument. Aides could review tapes and follow the problem-solving and helping relationship process more closely. Tapes could be used to facilitate development of skills and competencies.

A. In recognizing and identifying real problems of the client.

B. In developing sensitivity to the facilitation of solutions and approaches which can emerge from clients.

C. In developing sensitivity to differences between counselor-imposed solutions versus client-evolved solutions.

D. In developing a greater degree of empathy, genuineness, congruence, acceptance and respect for clients, listening skills, etc.

Data obtained from tapes would be most useful in helping to evaluate the effectiveness of the total program as well as the progress of the aides. This recommendation is made on the basis that all information between the client and the aide is confidential. Tapes can be made and evaluated without violating the confidence between client and aide, as has been demonstrated during the past thirty years in counseling centers, mental health clinics, and such agencies as The Learning Services Hub located in Biddeford-Saco, Maine.

2. A manual of referral agencies should be developed in which all agencies; federal, state and local, would be listed. Each agency would be described in terms of its purpose, program, services, personnel, facilities, and fees. The publication of such a manual would obviate the need for training sessions dealing with community services, integrate information about all existing services in one source, and serve as a valuable resource tool for aides. If mass printing of the manual were feasible, it perhaps would be a sound approach to distribute copies to clients, placing upon them the responsibility for using the manual.

3. Role definitions of all the personnel involved in the program should be clearly delineated and well established as early as possible in the program. Unless functions are explicitly stated and understood by all personnel, there will be considerable overlapping and dilution of effort. There should be no deflection of the unique and individual function of the community aide, or else the total effect of the Operation Mainstream counseling training project will disintegrate into applications of separate

menial tasks in a patchwork fashion.

4. Commercial films and tapes made by professional associations for the advancement and improvement of counseling, problem-solving, and human relationship skills and attitudes should be used when appropriate to facilitate the discovery process. Films and tapes provide real situations and models for critique and often serve as a springboard to generate interest, meaningful dialogue, and sincere participation. Role playing during training could be used more effectively by audio/video taping sessions and giving participants an opportunity to see themselves on film and assess their behavior.

5. There appears to be a need to conduct a more intensive orientation and training program in helping relationships and problem-solving at the outset of the program - perhaps a one- or two-week program which would give aides a more solid beginning and a surer sense of how they should function. Perhaps it might be well to include in this beginning activity some discussion of the process in which the aides will be involved during their training; e.g., how discovery learning works; the problems of frustration, confusion, and resistance as they work through the program. This would mean making the implicit principles and goals of discovery learning explicit enough to facilitate the discovery process.

6. Whenever it is possible and practical, program goals and activities should be planned by aides, supervisors, and training staff working together in a horizontal type of relationship as opposed to a vertical type of arrangement. Planning activities

involving supervisors, aides, and training staff would result in well developed and clearly understood goals which would be more readily incorporated by aides.

7. It is important to the future and the effectiveness of the O.M. counseling training project that a plan of evaluation be carefully formulated before the program begins. Objectives should be specified and monitoring points established in order for the program to gauge its progress toward the achievement of its goals. Program evaluation requires continual feedback from all spheres of activity and demands the consistent maintenance of adequate information to determine what is going on. In order to conduct a fair and valid evaluation, all of the information regarding the program should be available to those responsible for the evaluation.

VIII PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING AND PROBLEM-SOLVING

Although evaluation of the Operation Mainstream counseling education project was one of the most important elements in the task assigned to us, the primary purpose of our work was to design an educational activity that would effectively teach problem-solving and helping skills to non-professional people. It was hoped that the design of the educational activity would be based upon principles, concepts, and experiences emerging from the O.M. project.

The effort to evaluate the effectiveness of the O.M. counselor training project produced a large amount of data from which we have been able to abstract a number of principles regarding behavioral change. The principles we have identified and developed reflect information obtained from:

1. Documentation reports of trainer-supervisor dialogues and training sessions.
2. Interviews with supervisors.
3. Dialogues with training staff.
4. Reports of activities written by aides.
5. Observation of a training session.
6. Program agenda for training sessions.

The principles and concepts culled from the O.M. program in some cases were explicitly stated in the material we evaluated, in other cases the principles were inferred, and in a few cases the application and the translation of principles were observed.

It should be noted that the psychology of perception may have affected what we saw and considered significant. People see what they wish to see and hear what they wish to hear. The reader is advised that as objective evaluators we cannot claim that we were entirely free from selectivity in perception, at least to the degree that this factor operates in evaluations.

The principles are stated in general terms and not in reference to the O.M. program. They are principles which we believe can be translated into an educational process which will assist a variety of people in a variety of situations to learn how to govern their own lives so that they can become more fully functioning and more productive members of society.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING AND PROBLEM-SOLVING

A Glossary of Terms

Helping Relationship - Process which helps people to help themselves to learn and solve problems themselves.

Learning - Changing behavior in a positive direction. Refers to learning necessary for the solution of practical economic, social, political, and personal problems of living encountered by individuals, groups and communities.

Behavior - Attitudes, ideas, values, skills, interests.

Positive Direction - Directions which enhance the self, others, and the community.

Problem-Solving - Process activated by a difficulty or an obstacle which is clarified and defined as a problem requiring a search for data out of which emerge various alternatives from which a final solution is chosen.

Goals of Learning and Problem-Solving - To enable individuals, groups of people and communities to become more fully functioning, effective, and productive entities in society.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

Principle 1.

Learning is an experience which occurs inside the learner and is activated by the learner. The process of learning is primarily controlled by the learner and not by the teacher (group leader). Changes in perception and behavior are more products of human meaning and perceiving than of any forces exerted upon the individual. Learning is not only a function of what a teacher does to or says to or provides for a learner. More significantly, learning has to do with something which happens in the unique world of the learner. It flourishes in a situation in which teaching is seen as a facilitating process that assists people to explore and discover the personal meaning of events for them.

No one directly teaches anyone anything of significance. If teaching is defined as a process of directly communicating an experience or a fragment of knowledge, then it is clear that little learning occurs as a result of this process and the learning that does take place is usually inconsequential. People learn what they want to learn, they see what they want to see, and hear what they want to hear. Learning cannot be imposed. When we impose ideas on people we train them. When we create an atmosphere in which people are free to explore ideas in dialogue and through interaction with other people, we educate them. Very little learning takes place without personal involvement and meaning on the part of the learner. Unless what is being taught has personal meaning for the individual, he will shut it out from his field of perception. People forget most of the content "taught" to them and retain only the content which they use in their work or the content which is relevant to them personally.

Principle 2.

Learning is the discovery of the personal meaning and relevance of ideas. People more readily internalize and implement concepts and ideas which are relevant to their needs and problems. Learning is a process which requires the exploration of ideas in relation to self and community so that people can determine what their needs are, what goals they would like to formulate, what issues they would like to discuss, and what content they would like to learn. Within broad programatic boundaries, what is relevant and meaningful is decided by the learner(s) and must be discovered by the learner.

Principle 3.

Learning (behavioral change) is a consequence of experience. People become responsible when they have really assumed responsibility; they become independent when they have experienced independent behavior; they become able when they have experienced success; they begin to feel important when they are important to somebody; they feel liked when someone likes them. People do not change their behavior merely because someone tells them to do so or tells them how to change. For effective learning, giving information is not enough; e.g., people become responsible and independent not from having other people tell them that they should be responsible and independent but from having experienced authentic responsibility and independence.

Principle 4.

Learning is a cooperative and collaborative process. Cooperation fosters learning - "Two heads are better than one." People enjoy functioning independently but they also enjoy functioning interdependently. The interactive process appears to "scratch and nick" people's curiosity, potential, and creativity. Cooperative approaches are enabling. Through such approaches, people learn to define goals, to plan, to interact, and to try group arrangements in problem-solving. Paradoxically, as people invest themselves in collaborative group approaches, they develop a firmer sense of their own identity. They begin to realize that they count, that they have something to give and to learn. Problems which are identified and delineated through cooperative interaction appear to challenge and to stretch people to produce creative solutions and to become more creative individuals.

Principle 5.

Learning is an evolutionary process. Behavioral change requires time and patience. Learning is not a revolutionary process. When quick changes in behavior are demanded, we often resort to highly structured procedures through which we attempt to impose learning. Whether such learning is lasting and meaningful to the learner is doubtful. Implicit in all the principles and conditions for learning is an evolutionary model of learning. Learning situations characterized by free and open communication, confrontation, acceptance, respect, the right to make mistakes, self-revelation, cooperation and collaboration, ambiguity, shared evaluation, active and personal involvement, freedom from threat, and trust in the self are evolutionary in nature.

Principle 6.

Learning is sometimes a painful process. Behavioral change often calls for giving up the old and comfortable ways of believing, thinking, and valuing. It is not easy to discard familiar ways of doing things and incorporate new behavior. It is often "downright" uncomfortable to share one's self openly, to put one's ideas under the microscope of a group, and to genuinely confront other people. If growth is to occur, pain is often necessary. However, the pain of breaking away from the old and the comfortable is usually followed by appreciation and pleasure in the discovery of an evolving idea or a changing self.

Principle 7.

One of the richest resources for learning is the learner himself. In a day and age when so much emphasis is being placed upon instructional media, books, and speakers as resources for learning, we tend to overlook perhaps the richest resource of all - the learner himself. Each individual has an accumulation of experiences, ideas, feelings, and attitudes which comprise a rich vein of material for problem-solving and learning. All too often this vein is barely tapped. Situations which enable people to become open to themselves, to draw upon their personal collection of data, and to share their data in cooperative interaction with others maximize learning.

Principle 8.

The process of learning is emotional as well as intellectual. Learning is affected by the total state of the individual. People are feeling beings as well as thinking beings and when their feelings and thoughts are in harmony, learning is maximized. To create the optimal conditions for learning to occur in a group, people must come before purpose. Regardless of the purpose of a group, it cannot be effectively accomplished when other things get in the way. If the purpose of the group is to design and carry out some task, it will not be optimally achieved if people in the group are fighting and working against each other. If the purpose of the group is to discuss current issues and problems in a given field with reason and honesty, then it will not be achieved if people are afraid to communicate openly. Barriers to communication exist in people and before we can conduct "official business" we need to work with the people problems that may exist in a group. It might be said that in any group, regardless of the people problems which exist, enough group intellectual capacity remains intact for members of the group to acquire information and skills. However, to maximize the acquisition and internalization of ideas, it seems reasonable that the people problems would have to be dealt with first.

Principle 9.

The processes of problem-solving and learning are highly unique and individual. Each person has his own unique styles of learning and solving problems. Some personal styles of learning and problem-solving are highly effective, other styles are not so effective, and still others may be ineffective. We need to assist people to define and to make explicit to themselves the approaches they ordinarily use so that they can become more effective in problem-solving and learning. As people become more aware of how they learn and solve problems and as they become exposed to alternative models used by other people, they can refine and modify their personal styles so that these can be employed more effectively.

CONDITIONS WHICH FACILITATE LEARNING

Condition 1.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere which encourages people to be active. The learning process thrives when there is less teacher (group leader) domination and talk and more faith that people can find alternatives and solutions which are satisfying to themselves. Listening to people and allowing them to use the teacher (group leader) and the group as a resource and a sounding board, facilitates the active exploration of ideas and possible solutions to problems. People are not passive and reactive receptacles into which we can pour the "right" values, the "right" answers, and the "right" ways of thinking. People are active and creative beings who need the opportunity to determine goals, issues to be discussed, and the means of evaluating themselves. They learn when they feel they are a part of what is going on - when they are personally involved. Learning is not poured into people; learning emerges from people.

Condition 2.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere which promotes and facilitates the individual's discovery of the personal meaning of ideas. This means that the teacher (group leader), rather than directing or manipulating people, helps them to discover the personal meaning of ideas and events for them. He creates a situation in which people are freely able to express their needs rather than having their needs dictated to them. Learning becomes an activity in which the needs of the individual and the group are considered in deciding what issues will be explored and what the subject matter will be.

No matter how permissive or unstructured a learning activity may be, there exist implicit goals in the activity itself - a group leader (teacher) is never goalless. Learning occurs when the goals of the leader accommodate, facilitate, and encourage the individual's discovery of personal goals and personal meaning in events. The art of helping people to change their behavior requires the development of goals which provide sufficient elbow room for people to explore and internalize behavior satisfying and growth-producing to themselves.

Condition 3.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere which emphasizes the uniquely personal and subjective nature of learning. In such a situation, each individual has the feeling that his ideas, his feelings, his perspectives have value and significance. People need to develop an awareness that all that is to be learned is not outside or external to themselves. They develop such an awareness when they feel their contributions and their value as people are genuinely appreciated.

Condition 4.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere in which difference is good and desirable. Situations which emphasize the "one right answer," the "magical solution," or the "one good way," to act or to think or to behave, narrow and limit exploration and inhibit discovery. If people are to look at themselves, at others, and at ideas openly and reasonably, then they must have the opportunity to express their opinions no matter how different they may be. This calls for an atmosphere in which different ideas can be accepted (but not necessarily agreed with). Differences in ideas must be accepted if differences in people are to be, too.

Condition 5.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere which consistently recognizes people's right to make mistakes. Where mistakes are not permitted, then the freedom and the willingness of people to make choices are severely limited. Growth and change are facilitated when error is accepted as a natural part of the learning process. The learning process requires the challenge of new and different experiences, the trying of the unknown, and therefore necessarily must involve the making of mistakes. In order for people to learn, they need the opportunity to explore new situations and ideas without being penalized or punished for mistakes which are integral to the activity of learning. The teacher (group leader) who feels and acts on the need to be always right creates a limiting and threatening condition of learning.

Condition 6.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere which tolerates ambiguity. In a rigid and defensive atmosphere, people feel they cannot take the time to look at many solutions, they feel highly uncomfortable without answers, and they feel there is more concern for "right" answers than for good answers. The open and fearless exploration of solutions calls for time to explore many alternatives and time to proceed without feeling any pressure for immediate and forthcoming answers.

Condition 7.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere in which evaluation is a cooperative process with emphasis on self-evaluation. If learning is a personal process, then people need the opportunity to formulate the criteria to measure their progress. Criteria established by the teacher (group leader) are mostly artificial and irrelevant to persons in a group. Usually behavioral change and growth are measured by the degree to which people can regurgitate what others have tried to spoonfeed to them. It is obvious that anyone can play the game of "giving the teacher what he wants." A more viable and meaningful evaluation occurs when people are free to examine themselves and the roles they play with other people. Self-evaluation and peer evaluation enable people to really judge how much they have learned and grown; e.g., through audio and/or video taped recordings of their behavior, people can see themselves in the process of learning. Such recordings provide tangible and concrete evidence of progress and provide a rich source of material to the group for learning. New insights evolve as people see themselves as they really are. For learning to occur, the individual in the group needs to see himself accurately and realistically. This can be best accomplished through self- and group evaluation.

Condition 8.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere which encourages openness of self rather than concealment of self. Problem-solving and learning require that personal feelings, attitudes, ideas, questions, and concerns be openly brought to light and examined. To the degree that an idea, a thought, a feeling, or an attitude related to the topic at hand is held back and not openly expressed - to that degree are the processes of learning and discovery inhibited. People need to feel that they can try something, fail if necessary without being humiliated, embarrassed, or diminished as persons. Openness of self occurs in an atmosphere free from psychological threat. People can invest themselves fully and openly in the collaborative and interactive process of learning when they know that no matter what they say or express, it will not result in psychological punishment or penalties.

Condition 9.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere in which people are encouraged to trust in themselves as well as in external sources. They become less dependent upon authority when they can open up the self and when they feel that who they are is a valuable resource for learning. It is important that people feel that they have something to bring to the learning situation rather than feeling that all learning means the acquisition of facts and knowledge from some external agent for use sometime in the future. People learn when they begin to see themselves as the wellsprings of ideas and alternatives to problems. Learning is facilitated when people begin to draw ideas from themselves and others rather than relying on the teacher (group leader).

Condition 10.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere in which people feel they are respected. In a group in which high value is placed upon the individuality of the members and upon the relationships that exist within the group, people learn that someone cares for them. A genuine expression of care on the part of the teacher (leader) and a warm emotional climate generate an atmosphere of safety in which people can explore ideas and genuinely encounter other people without any threat. Confrontations and differences of opinion become constructive forces in a group in which people experience that they are respected as persons. A safe atmosphere need not exclude personal confrontations which often are effective catalysts for learning.

Condition 11.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere in which people feel they are accepted. People are free to change when they feel that change isn't being imposed upon them. It's paradoxical, but the more we try to change people, the more resistant they become to change. A person must be before he can become. Accepting a person means that we allow him to hold his values and to be himself. When a man does not have to defend himself or his values, then he is free to take a look at himself and his values, and to change. An insistence on change contains an implicit note of rejection. In effect we say to people - I can't accept you as you are; you must change. People need to feel they have an option - to change or not to change. They develop this feeling when they experience that they are accepted for who they are. When people or their values are attacked, it is natural that they will defend themselves. People who are busy defending themselves are not free to learn.

Condition 12.

Learning is facilitated in an atmosphere which permits confrontation. With free and open communication, with a non-threatening psychological climate, the unique self of each person is expressed. It is inevitable that in such a situation persons will confront persons, ideas will challenge ideas. Confrontations facilitate learning. They provide opportunities for people to have their ideas and themselves viewed and tested from the framework of other people or the group. No man learns in isolation from

from other people. His behavior changes and his ideas are refined and modified on the basis of the feedback he gets from other people. Confrontation is a proving ground which enables ideas to be synthesized, new ideas to emerge, and people to change.

PRINCIPLES OF PROBLEM SOLVING

Principle 1.

All problem-solving has five dimensions: (a) the problem, (b) the person or problem solver, (c) the process, (d) the environment, and (d) the product or solution. The problem may be defined as any felt need which is perceived as requiring action and toward which effort will be expended. The person or problem solver is influenced by his intellectual capacity, general and particular experience, and personality. All the personal variables which determine his behavior affect the total problem-solving process and the eventual solution. The problem-solving environment includes psychological, sociological, and physical factors. From the problem-solving environment and the problem solver himself emerge potential solutions to a problem. The problem-solving process - There are actually a number of problem-solving processes. Different problem solutions may be accounted for in part by different problem-solving processes. Problem-Solving Process = Problem + Person or Problem Solver + Environment. The Problem Solution is the result of the interaction of problem, person, problem-solving environment, and process. Problem Solution = Person + Environment + Process. All variations in the problem-solving and in the component elements and sub-tasks found in problem-solving models can be analyzed, explained, and taught in terms of these dimensions and their interactions.

Principle 2.

There are a variety of problem-solving processes. (See Chart 1.) There seem to be a sufficient number of variations of problem-solving processes to justify their identification and classification into separate models. The nature of the problem to be solved plus the unique nature of the individual(s) attempting to solve the problem plus the nature of the problem-solving environment often will determine the particular problem-solving process methodology to be used. Individuals and groups of individuals will vary in their disposition toward and in their preparation for each of the different variations of problem-solving processes.

Principle 3.

Each identifiable problem-solving process accommodates unique personal problem-solving styles. Within each of the eighteen problem solving methodologies identified in Chart 1 there can be an almost unlimited number of personal variations (See Figure 3.), depending on the unique interactions of the variables of person, problem, problem-solving methodologies, and environment.

Unique Problem-Solving Style =

$$\begin{array}{c}\text{Person}\\ \text{Life Style}\end{array} + \begin{array}{c}\text{Problem-Solving}\\ \text{Methodology}\end{array} + \text{Environment} + \text{Problem.}$$

Chart I Various Problem-Solving Methods

From
"The People, the Problems and the Problem Solving Methods," by
J. H. McPherson. THE JOURNAL OF CREATIVE BEHAVIOR,
Vol. 2, No. 2. Spring 1968.

Steps	I. Walles	II. Dewey	III. Rossman	IV. Guilford	V. Alex Osborn (early)	VI. Osborn, Parnes Creative Problem Solving
1.	Preparation (information)	Difficulty is felt	Need or difficulty is observed	A cyclic looping model that is difficult to present in a linear fashion (see text)	Orientation	Looking at "The Mess" to find problems
2.	Incubation (unconscious mental work goes on)	Difficulty located and difined	Problem formulated		Preparation	Finding a "Fuzzy Problem"
3.	Illumination (solution emerges)	Possible solutions are suggested	Available information surveyed		Analyses	Fact finding
4.	Verification (solution tested & evaluated)	Consequences are considered	Solutions formulated		Ideation	Problem finding
5.		A solution is selected	Solutions critically examined		Incubation	Idea finding
6.			New ideas formulated		Synthesis	Solution finding
7.			New ideas tested		Verification	Acceptance finding
8.						

Chart I Various Problem-Solving Methods (continued)

	VII. Work Simplification	VIII. Morphological Analysis	IX. Pert Program Evaluation Review Technique	X. Synectics	XI. General Electric
1.	Select a job to improve	Problem statement	Define the objective	The general statement of the problem to be solved. (Problem as given) (P.A.G.)	Recognition
2.	Get the facts	Selection of independent variables of the problem	Develop a network	Analysis and discussion to make the strange problem familiar	Definition
3.	Challenge details, list possibilities	Develop the subclassification for each independent variable	Gathering time estimate	Purge of immediate solutions	Search for methods
4.	Develop better methods	Construct a matrix that provides a "cell" for each of the relationships between the subcategories	Development of critical path	New statement of the problem. (Problem as understood) (P.A.U.)	Evaluation of methods
5.	Install improvements	Search for combinations from the matrix for new directions	Analysis of problem areas	Use of evocative questions that force analogical answers (direct personal, symbolic)	Selection of method
6.			Solution of problems	Play analogies developed to understand the implications	Preliminary solution or design
7.			Develop a new network	Application of this understanding to P.A.G. and P.A.U. to see if new viewpoint can be devaloped	Interpretation of results
				If new viewpoint, exploit it. If no new viewpoint -- repeat	Detailed solution or design

Chart I Various Problem-Solving Methods (continued)

Method Steps	XII. The Military	XIII. Value Analysis-Carlow Fallow	XIV. Attribute Listing Crawford	SV. Hypothetical Situation John Arnold	XVI. Kepner-Tregoe
1.	Problem Identification. Sensitive to & recognition of problem	Preparation phase	List the attributes of the object to be improved	Develop a hypothetical situation with many unusual conditions	Identify the problem
2.	Problem Research. Collect assemble & analyze facts & data	Information phase	Systematically examine each attribute in the search for modification (see text)	Using this situation as a stimulus design practical answers to fit the situation (see text)	Analyze the problem to find causes. 1) Problem analyzer has an expected standard of performance, a "should" against which to compare actual experience. 2) A problem is a deviation from a standard of performance. 3) A deviation from standard must be precisely identified, located and described. 4) There is always something distinguishing that which has been affected by the cause from that which has not. 5) The cause of a problem is always a change that has taken place through some distinctive feature, mechanism, or condition to produce a new, unwanted effect. 6) The possible causes of a deviation are deduced from the relevant changes found in analyzing the problem. 7) The most likely cause of a deviation is one that explains exactly all the facts in the specification of the problem.
3.	Problem Definition. Classify, analyze & define the real problem	Evaluation phase			
4.	Ideation phase using brainstorming procedure	Creative phase			

Chart I Various Problem-Solving Methods (continued)

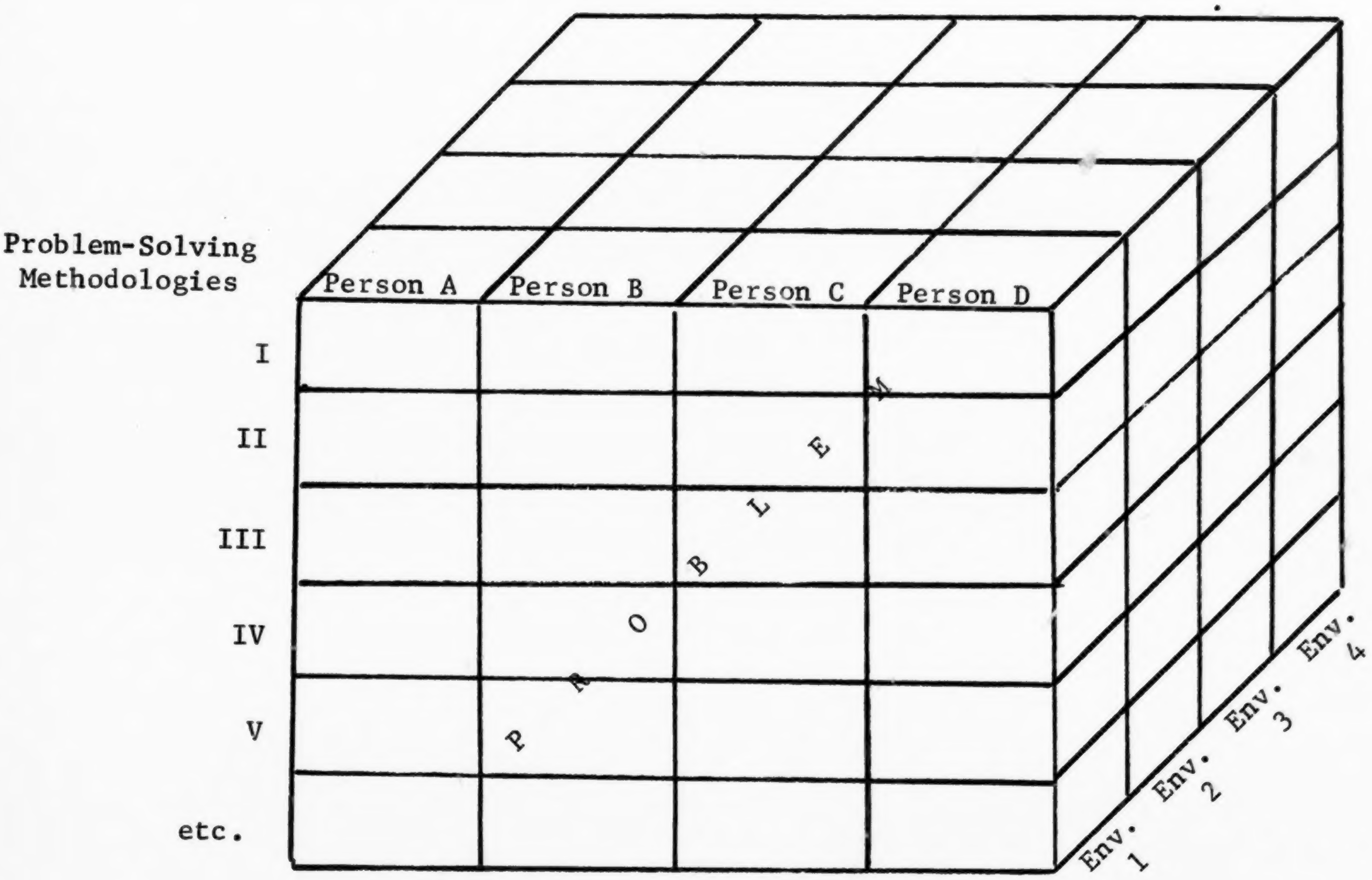
	XVII. Zero Defects	XVIII. Operations Research
1.	Identify the defects or errors	Decision makers are identified
2.	Classify the defects or errors	The relevant objectives guiding the program must be ascertained
3.	Trace defects to causes: men, machine, materials	Possible courses of action must be determined: (a) variables identified, b) degree of control over variables by decision maker is ascertained, c) formulation of new course or search to find an existing course occurs if no immediately available course of action is suitable.
4.	Make list of possible causes for each class of defects (a) Analyze the production process into "stages." (b) Analysis by "stations" in the production line.	The "context" of the problem must be understood: 2) communication paths determined, b) analyze needs and desires & identify "triggering needs" c) see how info flows and how it is treated in the system.

Chart I Various Problem-Solving Methods (continued)

Steps	XII. The Military	XIII. Value Analysis-Carlos Fallow	XVI. Kepner-Tregoe	XVIII. Operations Research
5.	Judgments Phase. Screen & clarify the list of ideas. Relate & combine compatible ideas into courses of action	Selection phase	Decision making 1) The objectives of the decision must be established first. 2) The objectives are classified as to importance (ranked and weighted). 3) Alternative actions are developed. 4) Alternatives are evaluated against the established objectives. 5) The choice of the alternative best able to achieve all the objectives represents the tentative decision. 6) The tentative decision is explored for future possible adverse consequences. 7) The effects of the final decision are controlled by taking actions to prevent possible adverse consequences from becoming problems, and by making sure the actions decided on are carried out.	Develop measures for assessing outcome. a) beforehand (a priori measures--from reason--several methods are available), b) a posteriori (after measure--from experience.
6.	Test ideas against external criteria	Implementation phase		Efficiency curves and effectiveness curves are used by the decision maker to make his decisions.
7.	Formulate plan for change. Develop plan to "sell" the best course of action			
8.	Coordinate. Gain understanding & acceptance. Action phase. execute the follow through	=		

Figure 3

INTERACTION MODEL - PROBLEM-SOLVING STYLES

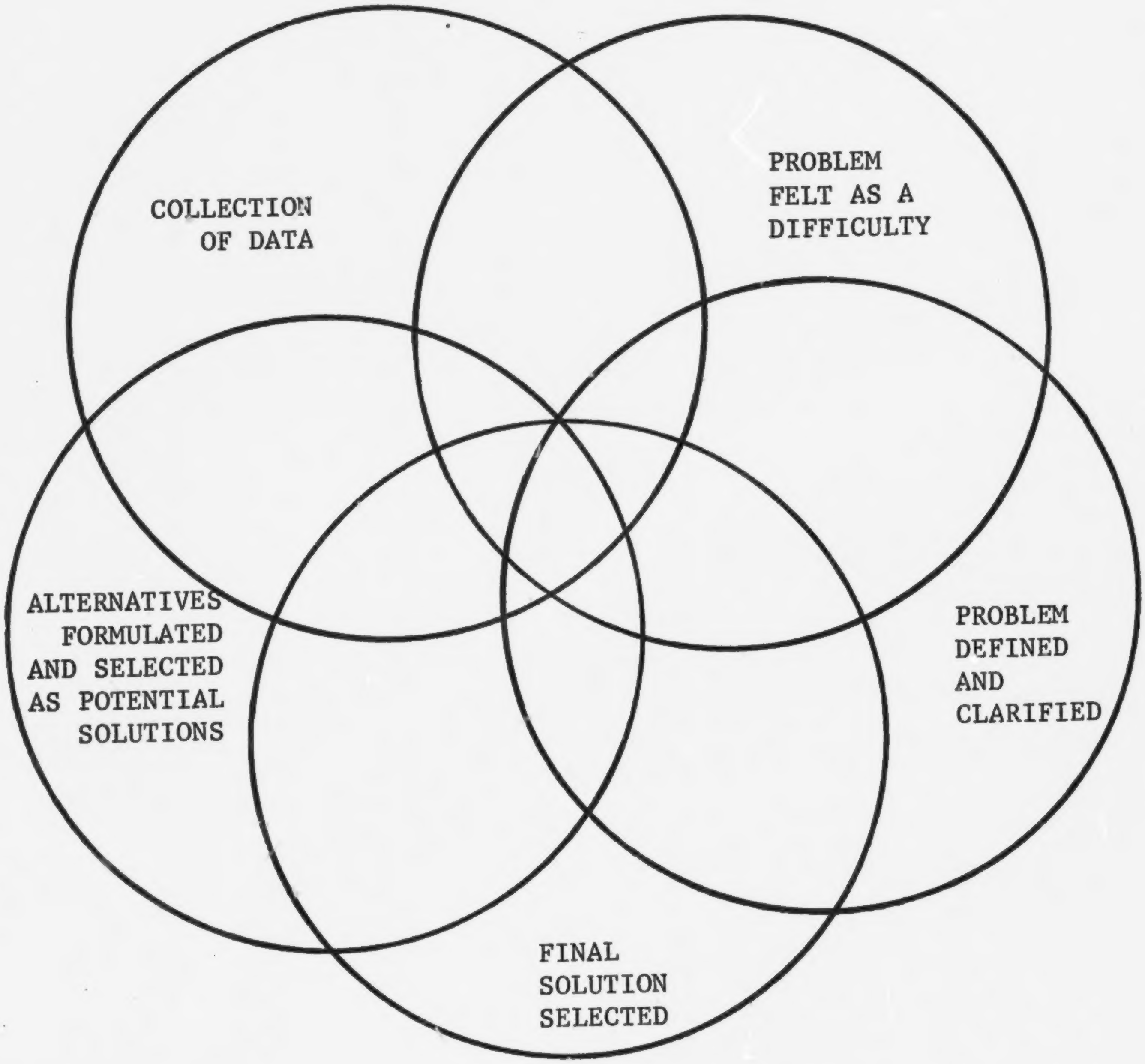

Problem-Solving Methodologies
Person A
Person B
Person C
Person D
I
II
III
IV
V
etc.
P R O B L E M
Env. 1
Env. 2
Env. 3
Env. 4

Principle 4.

Problem-solving is a process rather than a step-by-step methodology. Problem-solving models have been expressed in the form of "step-by-step procedures." In reality the component subtasks of problem-solving are often carried out concomitantly or in rearranged order which departs from the conventional order of a particular model. Thus, Individual X may define the problem while simultaneously collecting data to solve the problem; Individual Y may examine alternatives while redefining the problem and Individual Z may seek immediate solutions and then collect data. Problem-solving is perhaps more accurately viewed as a process in which the component elements are so closely entwined with each other and so inextricably interwoven that in operational reality they cannot be separated (See Figure 4.)

Figure 4

PROBLEM-SOLVING - A PROCESS MODEL


COLLECTION OF DATA
PROBLEM FELT AS A DIFFICULTY
ALTERNATIVES FORMULATED AND SELECTED AS POTENTIAL SOLUTIONS
PROBLEM DEFINED AND CLARIFIED
FINAL SOLUTION SELECTED

Appendices

A. Guidelines for data collection on Operation Mainstream.

B. Criteria and evaluation forms for selection of aides.

C. Example of training schedule for the aides conducted by supervisors.

D. Example of training schedule and format used by counselor education trainers from Boston University Human Relations Division.

E. Reporting form for community aides, supervisors and trainers.

F. Questionnaire circulated to aides and supervisors in June, 1968.

Appendix A

(Guidelines for data collection on Operation Mainstream)

INFORMATION NEEDED	SOURCES OF INFORMATION
1. Introduction 2. Rationale for Operation Mainstream a. Theoretical Framework b. Theoretical Inputs 3. Goals and Objectives a. General b. Specific 4. Organizational and Administrative Structure 5. Personnel a. Who are they? b. How selected? 6. Program Content & Activities a. Workshop Supervisor-aide b. Evaluation c. Aides activities	Descriptive Data to be Obtained from: 1. Operation Mainstream Proposal 2. Program Development Meetings - Minutes a. Jack Marvin) b. Sam Kelman) Resource c. Fred Nader) d. Austin Bennett) 3. Documentation Reports 4. Employment Applications 5. Profiles on Aides - Franconia, N. H. Vermont Maine
7. Evaluation a. Criteria	Interviews Supervisory Evaluations of Aides Direct Observation of O.M. Activities Content Analysis & Profiles - Franconia Documentation Reports Tape Recordings
8. Implications and Applications	

Appendix B

CRITERIA

1. Within Fixed Guidelines
2. Transportation of some kind
3. Able to read and write
4. High need for program
5. Sensitivity-sincerity
6. Sense of helping -- both self and others
7. Flexibility-Willingness to risk new behavior
8. Willingness to examine beliefs, attitudes
9. Subjective judgment of supervisors

Appendix B (continued)

INTERVIEW FORMAT

1. NAME AGE (Over 22?)

   WORK HISTORY

      w/in Guidelines
        15 weeks?
        26 months?

   FAMILY INCOME (Set by Dept. of Labor)

2. TRANSPORTATION YES________ NO________

      a. Within area, population, for training

      b. If not, can arrangements be made?

3. READ AND WRITE

      a. Level of Education

      b. Ability to submit and receive reports

4. SHARING OF EXPECTATIONS ABOUT PROGRAM

      Finding out what applicant knows about goals of the program.

   A. High need for program

      Exploring with applicant reasons for applying.
      Allow applicant to talk about how he sees himself in the program.

5. CASE STUDY

The best way to approach this task is to relax and be yourself. There are no right or wrong answers. Be honest.

CASE A

One day in late October, one of the families you have been working with tells you that another family, on the edge of town, really "needs help" in a bad way. You are first told that the man in the family has said he would like to see you, and then you are given "the story" about that family.

You are told that the man is not working and sometimes drinks too much. You "find out" that there are three young children and that the mother is "quite a bit" younger than the husband.

Aside from this information, it is fairly clear that the people telling you about this family think that the young mother is playing around with other men, and feel that this is shameful.

As you are being told all this, some thoughts and reactions are going through your mind. What will you do?

Appendix B (continued)

EVALUATION

Fixed Criteria:

1. Department of Labor guidelines:

1_____5 A. Age: 22 years minimum
1_____5 B. $3,200 family of 4, $400 steps (Chronically underemployed, seasonal employment.)
1_____5 C. Must be rural and indiginous.
1_____5 D. No discrimination.
1_____5 E. Get some men.

Evolved Criteria:

1. Area

1_____5 A. Fit needs of locality from which they come. Come from CAP and other resources of the area. (Desirable for Washington, Penobscot and Aroostook Counties - Indian.)
1_____5 B. Aides to be placed where they can be supervised. 1) Limited time, mileage and accessibility, including weather and roads.
1_____5 C. Respected by people in area - low-income and "haves."
1_____5 D. Able to cover their area - transportation.
1_____5 E. Some areas need bilongual.

2. Problem solving aptitude

1_____5 A. Ability to be constructively critical of one's own work and other's work without creating a feeling of failure.
1_____5 B. Ability to refrain from premature decisions - no snap judgments - patience.
1_____5 C. Ability to tolerate frustration of no quick answers.
1_____5 D. Non-judgmental - don't evaluate solutions until all information in.
1_____5 E. The ability to observe loose ends and tie them together - ability to organize.
1_____5 F. The ability to ask questions when things are vague - make abstract concrete.
1_____5 G. To listen and hear.
1_____5 H. The recognition of the right and responsibility of the person with problem to make own decision - including self.
1_____5 I. Respect for person with the problem.

(cont.)

Appendix B (continued)

Evolved Criteria (continued):

3. Helping relationship:

1_____5 A. Respect for people so climate of trust will evolve - non-judgmental.
1_____5 B. The ability to change - be flexible - take risks.
1_____5 C. The ability to relate especially to peers as well as with others.
1_____5 D. The ability to stick with it when it doesn't look like we are getting anywhere.
1_____5 E. Recognition of the right and responsibility for everyone to make own decision.
1_____5 F. Sincerity - through awareness of own needs, feelings and attitudes - open and honest.
1_____5 G. Want to help people including self.

4. Desires of supervisors:

1_____5 A. Need the program.
1_____5 B. Willingness to work and see the program as primary responsibility while in the program.
1_____5 C. How supervisor feels he can work with person.
1_____5 D. Ability to read and write.

Appendix C

TRAINING SCHEDULE

Wednesday, October 18

The Resource of Municipal Government

Community Aides will use this day of training to investigate municipal government as a resource for their work in their home community.

Objectives:

1. To determine the form of municipal government.
2. To determine the services provided by municipal government.
3. To learn some of the methods of operation and procedures followed in departments of municipal government.
4. To make an initial contact as a Community Aide with municipal officials.

Community Aides will be provided with worksheets for recording information about the municipal government of their community. It should be recognized that there are variations in form and services of municipal government between towns. A Community Aide may find that there are sections of the worksheet that do not apply to her town. Without making a value judgment - this is good or this is bad - the Community Aide should become aware that some municipal governments are more complex than others.

In some towns, town officials serve on a part-time basis. It may be necessary, if the worksheet is to be completed, to contact municipal officials in the evening. These officials are often called upon after the working day to fulfill a part of their responsibility. Community Aides may find, too, that if they are to contact the families that they want to reach, they may have to do some of their work in the evening hours.

Community Aides will be expected to report on their experiences and results of their investigation on Friday, October 20.

Appendix C (continued)

TRAINING SCHEDULE

Thursday, October 19

"Neighboring"

Community Aides will use this day of training to call upon or visit a few families in their community. At this stage of your training you may find it desirable to call on those people with whom you are well acquainted. You can use these visits as learning experiences.

Suggestions for today as you visit:

(1) Explain your job as a Community Aide - you may want to test two or three different explanations.

(2) Share with whomever you are visiting some of the ideas, programs and agencies you have heard about thus far in your training.

(3) Listen for an expression of needs (problems) from whomever you are visiting.

(4) Offer your services as a Community Aide.

(5) If you intend to call again say so to whomever you are visiting.

(6) You should develop the habit of making notes on your visits to families. This is best done after you have left the home and even better, are out of sight. The exception to this is in the case of specific information that you may need such as a telephone number or an address.

These visits will be social calls, as one friend on another friend. They will provide some basis for discussion and may bring out questions and needs for specific types of training.

You will be expected to report at a group training session on the visits of this day.

Appendix D

COUNSELING TRAINING PROGRAM

OPERATION MAINSTREAM

Training Staff Schedule: Hourly Schedule

Supervisory Training and Planning Days

Tuesday - New Hampshire

11:00 - Supervisory meeting with first supervisor in his town (second supervisor can be working on his project or traveling in morning)

12:30 - Lunch (with both supervisors)

1:30 - Supervisory meeting with second supervisor

3:00 - 6:00 - Planning session with both supervisors

Wednesday - Vermont

9:30 - Meeting with first supervisor

11:00 - Meeting with second supervisor

12:30 - Lunch

1:30 - Planning

4:30 - Travel back home

Maine - if together

Tuesday morning travel

12:00 - Lunch

1:00 - Observe/work with aides or work with U/Maine

3:30 - 5:00 - Supervisory meeting with local supervisor

Wednesday 8:30 - Meeting with Second supervisor

10:00 - Planning

1:00 - Lunch

2:00 - Travel home

Maine - if separate

Tuesday morning travel to Bangor

12:00 - Lunch

1:00 - Supervisory training session

2:30 - Planning

4:30 - Travel to P. I.

Wednesday 8:30 - Supervisory training session

10:00 - Planning

12:00 - Lunch

1:00 - Travel home

Appendix D (continued)

Evaluation Sessions

New Hampshire - Tuesday

11:00 - Meeting with CAP Director & Supervisors

12:30 - Lunch

1:30 - Divide training staff and meet with supervisor for supervisory training

3:00 - 6:00 - Group together for planning

Vermont - Wednesday

9:30 - Meeting with CAP Director & Supervisors

11:00 - Divide training staff for supervisory training

12:30 - Lunch

1:30 - Group for planning

4:30 - Travel home

Maine - Evaluation Session

Monday night travel

Tuesday

9:00 - Evaluation with CAP Director & Supervisors

11:00 - Divide training staff for supervisory training

12:30 - Lunch

1:30 - 4:30 - Planning with both supervisors

Wednesday - travel to Durham

12:00 - Lunch

1:00 - 4:00 - Meeting with Austin

Appendix D (continued)

COUNSELING TRAINING PROGRAM

OPERATION MAINSTREAM

Content Schedule

I. Supervisory Training Sessions - 1½ hours with each supervisor

- A. Review of learning from previous session - 15 minutes
- B. Discussion of supervisor's problems with his/her aides - 1 hour
- C. Distilling new learning from problems discussed - 15 minutes

In these sessions, a member of the training staff will try to help each supervisor analyze and plan for problems that the supervisor is having with his/her aides. We hope that these sessions will serve as a model for the way the supervisors will work with their aides. In addition to focusing on specific problems, the first and last 15 minutes will be spent crystallizing the learning that has taken place on problem solving and the helping relationship.

II. Planning Sessions - 2 to 3 hours with state teams

- A. Review of previous week's activities
- B. Planning activities for the coming week
- C. Training methodology

The focus of these meetings will be on planning and implementing training activities with the aides. One member of the training staff will help each state team prepare the training activities for the following week. This preparation will include planning the activity, together with discussing and trying different models for implementing the plan.

III. Workshop Planning and Conducting - 2 days

Day 1

- A. Review of learnings from previous workshops
- B. Planning the following day's workshop
- C. Trying out different training models

Day 2

- A. Conducting workshop with aides
- B. Evaluation of workshop with supervisors

A consultant brought in by the training staff and/or a member of the training staff will be involved in both the planning and conducting of the workshop. These workshops should focus on common problems the aides are having, problem solving and the helping relationship.

In Maine, one approach for developing workshops might be that training staff, together with two supervisors, would meet one month in Bangor and plan the workshop. All three people would then conduct the workshop together on the following day in the Bangor area. The next day, the two supervisors would travel to Presque Isle and conduct the same workshop for the P.I. aides. The next month, the procedure would start in Presque Isle and follow the same model.

In Vermont and New Hampshire, workshop planning will vary -- sometimes planning will take place with both states together and sometimes planning will be independent. Even if there is joint planning, a training staff member will assist in conducting the workshops for both states.

Evaluation Sessions - 1½ hours with CAP Director, supervisors and training staff.

A. Mutual evaluation of how training program is progressing. Both members of the training staff will try to attend these sessions. They will be held monthly in each state. The purpose of these sessions are to maintain communication between training staff, supervisors and CAP sponsors, and to evaluate what has happened in the past month's training so that we can learn for the future.

Appendix E

OPERATION MAINSTREAM

Record

____
Name

__Aide
__Supervisor
__Trainer
__Other, Specify

Date	Contact With	Time Spent	Reason for Contact	Evaluation	Next Steps

F-1/8/68

Appendix F
OPERATION MAINSTREAM RECORD

INSTRUCTIONS

The principles, ideas and experiences from Operation Mainstream are important for designing educational activities to teach problem-solving and helping skills to other people. What you can tell about your experiences with Operation Mainstream will help.

The enclosed forms have been designed to take as little of your time as possible and still record essential information. It is best if you fill out the form shortly after you have completed your contact. There is a good supply of forms available. Each form usually offers enough space for several entries.

Thank you for your cooperation.

NAME

Please print your name clearly. Put check mark by the proper title.

CONTACT WITH

Name of person(s) involved during this contact. It may be a family, community adviser, aide, supervisor, trainer or other person you have contacted as part of Operation Mainstream activities.

TIME SPENT

Length of time spent with person(s).

REASON FOR CONTACT

Tell what happened.

EVALUATION

How was the contact helpful to the other person? To you?
Did you feel you were effective? How?
Did you feel others were effective? How?

NEXT STEPS

By you or by the person contacted.

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